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UNIVERSAL

GEOGRAPHY,

OR

A Description

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

ANALYTICAL, SYNOPTICAL, AND ELEMENTARY TABLES.

BY M. MALTE-BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION, DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES,

VOL. V.

CONTAINING THE THEORY, OR MATHEMATICAL, PHYSICAL, AND POLITICAL PRINCIPLES, OF GEOGRAPHY.

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BOOK CXVII.

CONTINUED.

STATISTICAL TABLES OF THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA,

According to the Census published by M. HASSEL *in* 1819 *and* 1821; *and according to other more recent Authorities.*

EASTERN PRUSSIA.

Two Governments.

A. GOVERNMENT OF KŒNIGSBERG, divided into nineteen circles, of which the chief towns are Allenstein, Braunsberg, Fischhausen, Friedland, Gerdauen, Heiligenbeil, Heilsberg, Kœnigsberg, Labiau, Memel, Morungen, Neidenburg, Ortelsburg, Osterode, Preussisch-Eilau, Preussisch-Holland, Rastenburg, Rœssel, Welau.

		Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.[a]	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	48	592,170	404,95	1462
Burghs	13			
Villages	3717			
Census of 1821		624,163	404,95	1542
Increase from 1819 to 1821		31,993		80

NUMBER OF ACRES.

8,702,451. Under water 662,205.

Domestic animals	Horses	171,601
	Oxen	295,906
	Sheep	244,950
	Goats	1,475
	Pigs	180,171

B. GOVERNMENT OF GUMBINNEN, divided into sixteen circles, of which the chief towns are Angerburg, Darkehmen, Gumbinnen, Goldap, Heidekrug, Insterburg, Johannisburg, Lœtzen, Lyk, Neiderung, Olezko, Pillkallen, Ragnit, Sensburg, Stallupœhnen, Tilsit.

[a] A German square mile is equal to nearly twelve English square miles.

		Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	19	413,373	297,85	1388
Burghs	13			
Parishes	94			
Villages	2954			
Census of 1821		445,290	297,85	1495
Increase from 1819 to 1821		31,917		107

ACRES.
6,400,992. Under water 161,537.

Domestic animals	Horses	145,961
	Oxen	237,480
	Sheep	210,108
	Goats	751
	Pigs	147,025

WESTERN PRUSSIA.

Two Governments.

A. Government of Dantzic, divided into seven circles, of which the chief towns are Behrendt, Dantzic, Elbing, Karthaus, Marienburg, Neustadt, Stargardt.

		Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	11	265,582	150,89	1760
Burghs	6			
Villages	1875			
Census of 1821		283,002	150,89	1875
Increase from 1819 to 1821		17,420		115

ACRES.
3,242,708. Under water 99,126.

Domestic animals	Horses	45,275
	Oxen	87,869
	Sheep	109,901
	Goats	953
	Pigs	52,339

B. Government of Marienwerder, divided into thirteen circles, of which the principal towns are Deutsch-Krone, Flatow, Graudenz, Konitz, Kulm, Lœbau, Marienwerder, Rosenberg, Schlochau, Schwetz, Strasburg, Stuhm, Thorn.

		Population.	Surface in Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	45	367,495	315,06	1167
Burghs	4			
Villages	2078			
Census of 1821		392,255	315,06	1244
Increase from 1819 to 1821		24,760		77

NUMBER OF ACRES.
6,770,762.

Domestic animals	Horses	67,355
	Oxen	165,251
	Sheep	384,494
	Goats	1,805
	Pigs	100,539

GREAT DUTCHY OF POSEN.

Two Governments.

A. Government of Posen, divided into seventeen circles, of which the chief towns are Adelnau, Birnbaum, Bomst, Buk, Fraustadt, Kosten, Kroeben, Krotoschin, Meseritz, Obernik, Pleschen, Posen, Samter, Schildberg, Schrimm, Schroda, Wreschen.

		Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	94	604,612	327,42	1847
Burghs	3			
Villages	2410			
Census of 1821		635,188	327,42	1943
Increase from 1819 to 1821		30,576		96

NUMBER OF ACRES.
7,036,573.

Domestic Animals	Horses	52,264
	Oxen	204,834
	Sheep	600,471
	Goats	371
	Pigs	79,302

B. Government of Bromberg, divided into nine circles. Principal towns, Bromberg, Chodzesen, Gnesen, Inowratzlaw, Mogilno, Schubin, Tscharnikow, Wirsitz, Wongrowitz.

		Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	54	270,360	211,07	1324
Burghs	2			
Villages	1250			
Census of 1821		297,399	211,07	1409
Increase from 1819 to 1821		27,039		85

NUMBER OF ACRES.
4,535,978.

Domestic Animals	Horses	33,700
	Oxen	107,177
	Sheep	333,163
	Goats	1,143
	Pigs	59,629

SILESIA.

Three Governments.

A. Government of Breslau, divided into twenty-two circles. Principal towns, Breslau, Brieg, Frankenstein, Glatz, Guhrau, Habelschwert, Militsch, Munsterberg, Namslau, Neumarkt, Nimptsch, Ohlau, Oels, Reichenbach, Schweidnitz, Steinau, Strehlen, Striegau, Trebnitz, Waldenburg, Wartenberg, Wohlau.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for each Square Mile.
Towns	55	833,253	247,41	3368
Burghs	8			
Villages	2245			
Census of 1821		851,423	247,41	3441
Increase from 1819 to 1821		18,170		73

NUMBER OF ACRES.
5,316,616.

Domestic Animals	Horses	72,657
	Oxen	293,203
	Sheep	896,460
	Goats	7,856
	Pigs	34,097

B. Government of Oppelen, divided into sixteen circles. Principal towns, Beuthen, Falkenberg, Grofsstrehlitz, Grottkau, Kosel, Kreuzburg, Leobschütz, Lublinitz, Neisse, Neustadt, Oppeln, Plefs, Ratibor, Rosenberg, Rybnik, Tost.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	38	561,203	248,40	2259
Burghs	19			
Villages	1846			
Census of 1821		601,562	248,40	2462
Increase from 1819 to 1821		40,359		203

NUMBER OF ACRES.
5,338,329.

Domestic Animals	Horses	69,372
	Oxen	220,111
	Sheep	416,388
	Goats	920
	Pigs	54,459

C. Government of Liegnitz, divided into eighteen circles. Principal towns, Bolkenhain, Bunzlau, Friestadt, Glogau, Goerlitz, Grünberg, Hainau-Goldberg, Hirschberg, Jauer, Landshut, Lauban, Liegnitz, Lœwenberg, Lübben Rothenbourg, Sagan, Schœnau, Sprottau.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	45	667,133	224,49	2974
Burghs	11			
Villages	1685			
Census of 1821		685,049	224,49	3051
crease from 1819 to 1821		17,916		77

NUMBER OF ACRES.
4,820,334.

Domestic Animals	Horses	33,839
	Oxen	234,037
	Sheep	542,691
	Goats	11,467
	Pigs	9,005

PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

Two Governments.

A. Government of Potzdam, divided into thirteen circles. Principal towns, Angermunde, Jüterbock-Luckenwalde, Niederbarnim, Oberbarnim, Osthavelland, Ostpriegnitz, Prenzlow, Ruppin, Teltow-Storkow, Templin, Westhavelland, Westpriegnitz, Zaucha-Belzig.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for each Square Mile.
Towns	72	740,333	377,77	1950
Burghs	13			
Villages	1319			
Census of 1821		748,027	377,77	1980
Increase from 1819 to 1821		7,694		30

NUMBER OF ACRES.
8,118,323.

Domestic Animals	Horses	96,701
	Oxen	241,207
	Sheep	908,574
	Goats	5,761
	Pigs	88,590

B. Government of Frankfort on the Oder, divided into eighteen circles. Principal towns, Arenswalde, Frankfort, Friedeberg, Guben, Kalau, Kœnisberg, Kottbus, Krossen, Küstrin, Landsberg, Lebus, Lubben, Luckau, Soldin, Sorau, Spremberg-Hoyerswerda, Sternberg, Züllichau.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	70	594,827	374,53	1601
Burghs	7			
Villages	1699			
Census of 1821		615,831	374,53	1657
Increase from 1819 to 1821		21,004		56

NUMBER OF ACRES.
7,984, 308.

Domestic Animals	Horses	67,183
	Oxen	286,932
	Sheep	810,711
	Goats	2,801
	Pigs	74,041

POMERANIA.

Three Governments.

A. Government of Stettin, divided into thirteen circles. Principal towns, Anklam, Demmin, Greiffenhagen, Greiffenberg, Kammin, Neugardt, Pyritz, Randow, Regenwalde, Saazig, Stettin, Uckermunde, Usedom-Wollin.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	35	341,041	233,13	1463
Burghs	5			
Villages	1500			
Census of 1821		358,974	233,13	1539
Increase from 1819 to 1821		17,933		76

NUMBER OF ACRES.
5,010,027.

Domestic Animals	Horses	54,992
	Oxen	172,470
	Sheep	570,186
	Goats	1,500
	Pigs	73,328

B. Government of Koslin, divided into nine circles. Principal towns, Belgard, Dramburg, Furstenthum, Lauenburg-Bütow, Neustettin, Rummelsburg, Schiefelbein, Schlawe, Stolpe.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to each Square Mile.
Towns	23	255,265	258,49	987
Burghs	5			
Villages	1196			
Census of 1821		273,804	258,49	1059
Increase from 1819 to 1821		18,539		72

NUMBER OF ACRES.
5,555,093. Under water 59,470.

Domestic Animals	Horses	42,111
	Oxen	123,954
	Sheep	363,791
	Goats	1,558
	Pigs	38,378

C. Government of Stralsund, divided into four circles. Principal towns, Bergin, Franzburg, Greisswalde, Grimma.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	14	133,528	74,90	1783
Burghs	3			
Villages	347			
Census of 1821		135,425	74,90	1808
Increase from 1819 to 1821		1,897		25

NUMBER OF ACRES.
1,609,485. Under water 115,595.

Domestic Animals	Horses	29,514
	Oxen	88,504
	Sheep	166,371
	Goats	181
	Pigs	25,530

PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

Three Governments.

A. Government of Magdeburg, divided into fifteen circles. Principal towns, Aschersleben, Gardelegen, Halberstadt, Jerichow I., Jerichow II., Kalbe, Magdeburg, Neuhaldensleben, Oschersleben, Osterburg, Osterwiek, Salzwedel, Stendal, Wanzleben, Wolmirstedt.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns	50	486,000	204,70	2374
Burghs	3			
Villages	917			
Hamlets and detached houses	580			
Census of 1821		493,560	204,70	2411
Increase from 1819 to 1821		7,560		37

NUMBER OF ACRES.
4,396,149.

Domestic Animals	Horses	65,804
	Oxen	155,528
	Sheep	687,240
	Goats	5,256
	Pigs	69,350

B. Government of Merseburg, divided into sixteen circles. Principal towns, Bitterfeld, Delitsch, Eckartsberga, Halle, Liebenwerda, Mannsfeld-Gebirge, Merseburg, Naumburg, Querfurt, Saale, Sangerhausen, Schweinitz, Torgau, Weissenfels, Wittemberg, Zeitz.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns	71	525,507	187	2810
Burghs	9			
Villages and hamlets	1648			
Census of 1821		532,939	187	2849
Increase from 1819 to 1821		7,432		39

NUMBER OF ACRES.
4,018,808.

Domestic Animals	Horses	50,647
	Oxen	200,808
	Sheep	677,425
	Goats	17,980
	Pigs	76,794

C. Government of Erfurt, divided into nine circles. Principal towns, Erfurt, Heiligenstadt, Langensalza, Muhlhausen, Nordhausen, Schleusingen, Weissensee, Worbis, Ziegenrück.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns	22	247,714	66,24	3740
Burghs	14			
Villages	399			
Hamlets and detached houses	207			
Census of 1821		248,843	66,24	3756
Increase from 1819 to 1821		1,129		16

NUMBER OF ACRES.
1,423,381.

Domestic Animals	Horses	17,438
	Oxen	63,190
	Sheep	188,212
	Goats	10,948
	Pigs	26,786

Number of Inhabitants according to the different nations and sects to which they belong—Monasteries, Churches, Universities, Schools.

EASTERN PRUSSIA.

Different nations.

Germans	633,000
Lithuanians	350,000
Kourres or Courres, Lettons or Lettonians	20,000
Jews	2,500

Different Sects.

Protestants	857,000
Catholics	145,000
Mennonites	850
Socinians	150
Jews	2,500

Parishes and Churches.

Lutheran Parishes, (according to the Confession of Augsburg)	384
Calvinistic Parishes	18
Catholic Parishes	80
Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	554

Places of Education.

Universities	1
Gymnasia	14
Different Seminaries	69
Schools	1937

WESTERN PRUSSIA.

Germans	293,000

Poles	327,300
Jews	12,600

Different Sects.

Protestants	312,000
Catholics	295,700
Mennonites	12,600
Jews	12,700

Monasteries.

Convents for Men	19
Convents for Women	9

Churches.

Catholic Churches	571
Lutheran Churches	248
Calvinistic Churches	8
Assemblies of the Mennonite Communion	18

Places of Education.

Catholic Colleges	
Catholic Gymnasia	3
Catholic Seminary	1
Protestant Gymnasia	4
Normal schools	1

GREAT DUTCHY OF POSEN.

Different Nations.

Germans	158,000
Poles	670,000
Jews	49,900

Different Sects.

Lutherans	258,500
Reformists or Calvinists	3,900
Catholics	562,000
Mennonites	28
Greeks	572
Jews	49,900

Monasteries.

Convents for Men	47
Convents for Women	10

Churches.

Catholic Churches	581
Greek Churches	1
Calvinistic or Reformed Churches	10
Lutheran Churches	111

SILESIA.

Different Nations.

Germans	1,600,000
Poles	416,000
Wendes	24,500
Bohemians, or Czeches (Tcheken)	4,500
Jews	16,600

Different Sects.

Protestants and Reformists	1,150,500
Catholics	894,270
Mennonites	230
Jews	16,600

Monasteries.

Convents for Men	3
Convents for Women	3

Churches.

Lutheran	625
Reformed	9
Catholic Churches in three dioceses	1,378
Chapels visited by Pilgrims	7

PLACES OF EDUCATION.

Catholic Seminaries.

University	1
Gymnasia	8
Seminary	1

Lutheran and Reformed.

Lutheran Gymnasia	10
Reformed	1
Normal Schools	13

Jewish.

Schools	2

Military Schools	1
Boarding Schools for Girls	4
Public and Private Schools	3,500

PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

Different Nations.

Germans	1,252,000
Wendes	68,000

French and Walloons	6,500
Jews	8,500

Different Worships.

Protestants	1,306,190
Catholics	20,000
Mennonites	310
Jews	8,500

Churches.

Lutheran	1,216
Calvinistic	37
French Reformed	30
Different Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	2,481

POMERANIA.

Different Inhabitants.

Germans	640,000
Wendes that have retained their dialect	86,800
Jews	3,000

Different Worships.

Protestants	710,000
Catholics	6,798
Mennonites	2
Jews	3,000

Churches and Parishes.

Lutheran Parishes	519
Calvinistic or Reformed Parishes	7
Catholic Parishes	8
Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	1,357

PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

Different Inhabitants.

Germans, together with some inhabitants of French extraction, who have long since forgotten their native language,	1,255,980
Jews	3,240

Different Worships.

Protestants	1,167,976
Catholics	88,000
Mennonites	4
Jews	3,240

Churches.

Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	2,776

Places of Education.

Universities	8
Professors	64
Students	1,554
Academies	16
Teachers	27
Scholars	875
Public Schools	89
Teachers	141
Scholars	8,032
Elementary Private Schools	51
Teachers	74
Scholars	1,019
Elementary Public Schools	1,036
Teachers	1,120
Scholars	66,944

PRUSSIAN ARMY IN 1821.

Royal Guard		17,908 men	
Infantry of the line		104,712	
Cavalry		19,132	
Artillery		15,718	
Gendarmes		7,050	
	Total	164,520	523,768
Landwehr		359,248	
Officers: Generals		82	7,405
Colonels		21	
Lieutenant-Colonels		247	
Majors		655	
Captains		1,675	
Lieutenants		1,370	
Sub-Lieutenants		3,355	
	Sum Total		531,173

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE IN 1821.

Revenue.

Domains and Forests	8,406,975 florins.
Sale of Domains	1,500,000
Mines, Iron, Copper, Salt, Porcelain, and Earthen Works	858,000
Post Office	1,200,000
Lotteries	761,700
Monopoly on Salt	5,700,000
Contributions	53,786,775
Extraordinary receipts	2,786,550
Total	75,000,000

Expenditure.

Administration of Foreign Affairs	900,000 florins.

Church Establishment - - - -	3,000,000 florins.
Administration of Justice - - -	2,580,000
——————of the interior, Police, &c. -	3,450,450
Commerce - - - - - -	2,361,000
War Department - - - -	34,206,450
Financial Department - - - -	400,150
Treasury - - - - - -	1,739,625
Interest on the National Debt - - -	15,222,500
Pensions - - - - -	4,050,000
Expenses of the Home Department - -	3,750,000
Various extraordinary Expenses - -	3,339,825
Total	75,000,000

The national debt amounts to 412,500,000 florins; part of it is redeemed every year.
Note.—A florin is equal in value to two shillings.

BOOK CXVIII.

EUROPE.

Agricultural Produce of the Maritime Provinces in Prussia—Peasants—Mortgages—Landed Estates—Method of Husbandry—Restrictions on the Foreign Corn-trade—Depreciation of Landed Property.

The information contained in this chapter, has been wholly derived from the reports of Mr. Jacob, a late and very intelligent writer on the agriculture of Prussia.

Maritime Provinces.

The observations of Mr. Jacob are confined to the three maritime provinces. As it was the special object of his instructions to inquire into the state of the countries from which corn had been exported to England, his attention was chiefly directed to the state of these provinces, and, also, but in a less degree, to that of Brandenburg. The three provinces which communicate with the Baltic sea, and which, since the conventional partitions at the end of the last war, form part of the Prussian dominions, are West Prussia, East Prussia, and Pomerania. All of them, as has been already remarked, are a portion of that vast and sandy plain, which extends from the shores of Holland to the extremity of Asiatic Russia. The heights are too insignificant to merit the appellation of hills; and such places as are not covered with wood, are large and open plains. The soil, in some places, consists of barren sand, exhibiting no appearance of vegetation, in many parts no attempt at cultivation, and what is cultivated seems to yield but scanty returns. It is not then extraordinary that the landed property in these provinces should have fallen so much in value, both because they cannot be compared with the other parts of the Prussian monarchy, where the soil and climate are much more favourable to production; and because it is an admitted truth, and one on which Mr. Jacob insists, that under a great depreciation in the price of corn, the poorer lands are subject to a greater proportionate fall in their sale price than the more fertile soils.

Grain exported.

It appears from official accounts, that 447,183 quarters of wheat, and 1,218,916 quarters of rye, barley and oats, have been exported from them, independently of their own produce, during the nine years previous to the end of 1824. It ought also to be mentioned

that the returns are wanting for East Prussia in 1818, but it is probable they were not more than 350,000 quarters of wheat, and 340,000 of other grains.

It is likely that some portion of the quantity may have been produced in the inland and contiguous provinces of Posen, Silesia, and Brandenburg, for the trade in corn, between one province and another, is free in Prussia, and because no official accounts are kept, from which it can be ascertained whether what is exported by sea is the produce of the province from which it is shipped.

Landed estates.

It has already been remarked that the landed estates in Prussia, as well as in some other parts of Europe, remained, until a recent period, in the possession of large proprietors. The plebeian who had acquired a fortune by his own exertions in any department of industry, whatever wealth he might have amassed, could not invest it in land, until he had been ennobled. It was only in the year 1811 that these restrictions were removed, when the French had invaded and conquered the country.

Peasantry.

It appears from other writings, as well as from Mr. Jacob's report, that a tenantry, in the sense of the term as it is used in some countries, is still almost unknown. The land, it may be repeated, was worked by a class of persons, in some respects slaves, in reality but little removed from that condition. It is certain, however, that they had, in many cases, a kind of hereditary right to some use of the land; such as to grow one crop of corn according to a prescribed course, whilst the lord or proprietor had the right of pasture between the crops. They could not, on the other hand, be dismissed from their holdings, nor had the superior any right over the property, which they might be able to accumulate. The conditions upon which the peasants held their portions of land, were very various, some having a greater, and others a less share in the use of them, some performing greater, and others less service for them.[a]

Liberation of the peasantry.

By a series of legislative measures, that were passed between the years 1807 and 1811, servitude was abolished; all the once enslaved peasants are now changed into freemen and freeholders. The lands

Lands belonging to the peasantry.

allotted to the peasantry were divided according to the proprietor's claims for personal services; in some few instances they have been equally portioned, the peasant possessing his moiety in perpetuity; on the other hand, if the lord's claims were less limited, the peasant had a smaller share in the land. Examples are not wanting, in which compensations in money were settled by agreement between the nobles and the peasants. These bargains were concluded in different ways, sometimes by the payment of a fixed sum, or more frequently by security over the land granted to the new proprietor. Some of the peasants retained all the land that they had formerly used, by purchasing that portion from their lords, to which they were not entitled by the new enactments.

Opinions concerning the new enactments.

Different opinions were entertained as to the policy of liberating the husbandmen, and of the laws in their favour. Many believed their condition was rendered worse, others affirmed that freedom could be of little use to that class of the community, but, on the contrary, might deprive them of many advantages which they formerly enjoyed. While the lords were compelled to obey the laws, the peasants were allowed the liberty of choice, and, even now, some prefer their ancient servitude to present liberty.

It is not to be doubted that these enactments form the commencement of a new and better system; at the same time, it must exist longer than it has done, before the improvement can be effected. The peasants passed

[a] Jacob's Report, page 29.

from a state of slavery to freedom; the nobles were before entitled to their services, and these services were as much their property as any part of their estates; but as the relation between a lord and his slave, is very different from that between an ordinary master and his hired servant, some time must elapse before both parties can be accustomed to the change, although its beneficial effects must one day be apparent.

The above remarks are confirmed by the observations of Mr. Jacob. "It is obvious," says he, "that all the operations of agriculture are still performed with a listlessness and slovenly indolence, which was natural to the former character of the labourers, and which their new condition has not yet had time to remove.

"The labourers who can now acquire land by the abolition of ancient feudal tenures, although placed above the pressure of want, or possessing the bare necessaries of life, have very little beyond them. Such as are industrious and frugal, by cultivating their small portion of ground, may raise a sufficient quantity of potatoes for their own consumption, corn for their bread, and provisions for two draught oxen. They all raise a small quantity of flax, and some few contrive to keep five or six sheep. It is often no easy matter for those to find occupation, who are desirous of other employment in addition to the cultivation of their own land, for no agricultural labour can be carried on during the long and severe winters. The flax and the wool spun in the cottage, supply the family with clothing, and the fat of the animals that are killed, are converted into soap and candles. It is rare, indeed, that the inmates can afford to have meat of any kind, and those only, who are more prosperous than their neighbours, can keep a cow to provide themselves with milk."

Thus, whatever is produced, is consumed by the family, and it is fortunate if, at the end of the year, a few shillings can be saved to meet the demands of the tax-gatherer, or to pay local assessments. It is the opinion, says Mr. Jacob, of all with whom I conversed on the subject, that this class of men are, at present, in a worse condition, than under the old tenures; and, as it was attributed to the depression of agriculture, the want of capital, and the little encouragement given to the great landed proprietors, those who had been favourable to the new enactments, were not blamed, nor was that wisdom called in question by which the emancipation of the peasantry was planned and executed.

Wages.

The rate of wages is very low; it is certain that it does not average more, if so much, as fivepence a-day; yet the condition of a labourer in constant employment, with a cottage and potato ground, is admitted to be much superior to that of the peasant, who was recently raised from a state of feudal vassalage to freedom. The labourers that are boarded in the houses of their masters, have a sufficient quantity of coarse food, such as rye bread, potatoes and buckwheat, and sometimes, though rarely, animal food.

It was not before the abolition of the feudal tenures that it was found necessary to relieve the aged and infirm poor. It had been, in past times, the duty of every noble to supply the wants of his peasants, if they were worn out by age or sickness, and if their relatives were unable to afford them any assistance. A regular system of taxation for the poor has not yet been introduced, but the first steps towards it have been already taken; assessments too are levied for the widows and children of the men who fell in the late conflicts, as well as for such as were disabled in the service.[b]

It is calculated that four-fifths of the inhabitants in these provinces, subsist wholly by producing food. The luxuries they enjoy must, therefore, depend on the price given for the surplus produce; but that price has been constantly falling of late years, and consequently the comforts and conve-

[b] Jacob's Report, p. 45.

niences of the people must be proportionally affected; in other words, their manner of life must be regulated by what is exchanged for the produce of their industry. If that rule be adopted, it follows that many individuals in these countries can command little, if any thing, beyond the mere necessaries of existence.

Division of land.

The land is divided among two classes, the nobles and the new proprietors of large estates; the rest is parcelled into small portions, such as under the ancient system were thought adequate for half the maintainance of a labourer's family. The absence of a middle class, between the peasants and the landlords, is to be regretted. Mr. Jacob looked in vain for that class of farmers, so common in his own country, with sufficient capital to enable them to farm such an extent of land, as an able man can most advantageously manage, and after stocking and working it, pay rent to the proprietor. With very few exceptions, no rent is paid, and almost every proprietor, whether a large or a small one, cultivates his own land.

The exceptions to the general rule are mostly to be observed on the banks of large rivers, or in the neighbourhood of cities; meadows and pasture lands are there set apart for feeding cattle, or hay is grown for the supply of the towns. Some meadows on the banks of the Oder near Stettin, which are let for fifteen or twenty shillings an acre, are said to yield, when mowed, about two tons of hay. The after-feed, as may be easily supposed, is worth little, and the cause is to be attributed to the nature of the climate, the great rains in autumn, and the early and severe frosts in winter. Land of this description is of less relative value than in France or England, from the severe cold and long duration of winter, the want of spring, the drought and excessive heat of summer.[c] If a monied rent is paid for such land, it is owing to its local advantages; and its extent, it is obvious, is very inconsiderable, when compared with the land that is cultivated by proprietors.

Crown lands.

The crown domains, of which some account has been already given, ought not to be confounded with the other estates. The most of them were possessed by persons whose ancestors had held them from the crown at low rents, and who were exempt from the land tax or *Grund Steuer*. According to the new laws, not only the estates of nobles, but those of the crown, are subject to the land tax. It appears too that when these laws were passed, the high price given for corn, enabled the tenants of the crown to pay their trifling, almost nominal rent, as well as the land tax. At no distant period afterwards, the price of corn fell, and the tenants were unable to pay both the one and the other. The exigencies of the state rendered it imperative that the taxes should be levied, and the rents were consequently suffered to run in arrear, as it was impossible to obtain it from the tenants. It was proved, not only by those with whom Mr. Jacob conversed, intelligent men, possessed of ample means of information on the subject, but also by different documents, which the same writer has collected, that by far the greater number of the tenants on the royal domains, whose rents had run ten years in arrear, were forgiven the whole, and the mutual obligations cancelled, on their promising to pay regularly, in future;—a promise, it is believed, they are unable to fulfil, from the great and additional fall that has since taken place in the price of corn.

Average rent of the royal domains.

It is difficult to estimate the average rent of the royal domains; the qualities of the soil are so various, and the localities so different, relatively to their advantages, that it is almost impossible to arrive at a correct approximation. One farm that is considered fair average land, consists of 1720 acres, and is let at the annual

[c] Jacob's First Report, p. 31.

rent of 158*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.* Another, supposed to consist of the best soil, and equal in extent to 3054 acres, is let for 552*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* Other farms are let as high as three shillings and eight pence per acre, a much larger proportion at one shilling and two pence, and a greater still at eight pence or nine pence.

The extent of the royal domains in West Prussia, bears but a very small proportion to that of the other lands, certainly not more, if so much as a sixtieth part.

Mortgages.

Most of the estates belonging formerly to the nobles, and only capable of being possessed by that body, might be considered inalienable. The necessity of relieving the embarrassed proprietors, led government to devise a plan, by which money could be borrowed, on the security of land, and the privilege which was at first confined to the estates of the nobility, was afterwards extended to other landed property.

Landschaft.

The *landschaft*, a local assembly consisting of the principal proprietors, were instructed to make a valuation of the estates that were to be mortgaged, and to issue *pfandbriefe* or mortgage debentures, bearing interest, and transferable with little trouble and expense; on such securities, one-half, and in some instances, six-tenths of the landschaft's valuation was easily borrowed. The lands, indeed, were valued upon a low scale of the prices of produce, and upon a low estimate of the quantity of produce that might be raised on them. As there were no government funds in the country, or, at all events, none in which the public had much confidence, it was natural to expect that such sums as were not intended to be exposed to the fluctuations of commerce would be deposited in the new securities, and, indeed, the fortunes of widows and orphans, the capitals of churches, schools, hospitals, and other benevolent institutions, were invested in them. The valuations were made in 1794, and as the price of produce rose gradually, the debt was not considered burdensome, and the interest was regularly paid by the different proprietors; so great was the confidence in the security, that these debentures were frequently sold at a premium of ten per cent.

Encumbered estates.

But for the last ten years the price of every kind of corn, except wheat, the one that is least cultivated, has fallen below that at which the valuation was made in 1794, and during the same period, the price of labour has risen, and additional taxes have been levied. Hence it happens that many proprietors, who, for the first twenty years, could easily discharge the demands on their estates, are now unable to do so.

It appears, indeed, that out of 262 estates, subject to the landschaft's jurisdiction, 195 are encumbered, whilst 67 only are free from incumbrances. Of the 195 estates, 71 were afterwards put into a state of sequestration, a remedy to which the mortgagees never have recourse but in cases of extremity. It is certain too that many other estates have been suffered to remain in the hands of the nominal proprietors, because the interest of the money lent on them, ceases as soon as the process of sequestration is commenced, and because they cannot be sold for the sum that has been advanced on them. It is also well known that the sequestered estates are very carelessly managed by the officers of government.

Low value of land.

It may be inferred from what has been already mentioned, that the price of land is at present very low in the maritime provinces. It is stated that an estate of medium soil was put up to auction, and not bringing an offer equal to the sum mortgaged, was purchased by the mortgagee. The extent was about 4200 English acres; the soil light and sandy, and, in some places, approaching to loam. The principal and interest, due to the mortgagee, amounted to 3000*l.*, for which sum the property was sold. Another estate, one of the best in the district, with all the buildings in good repair, and the land in a high state of cultivation,

was exposed to sale, and purchased for 5200*l.* The soil is of a good sandy loam, and the extent not less than 2800 acres.

These two instances are mentioned in Mr. Jacob's Report, to show the highest and the lowest prices given for average arable land in these provinces. It may be concluded, then, that the highest price is less than forty shillings an acre, and the lowest nearly equal to fifteen.

It may be seen from official documents, that the provinces of East Prussia, West Prussia, and Pomerania, the latter including the late Swedish territory of the same name, contain about 25,500,000 acres, or more than half the extent of England. It appears, also, from an official account published in the year 1821, that the stock of cattle were as follow, at the end of 1819.

Live stock.

556,839 horses and colts.
1,171,434 oxen, cows, and calves.
2,049,801 sheep and lambs.
617,310 swine.

According to the lowest estimate relative to the stock of cattle in England, there are more than three times the number of horses, and upwards of four times the number of oxen and sheep, in the same extent of land. Several authors, who have written on English statistics, suppose that the proportion of cattle to surface is much greater in England. It is probable, however, that the sheep have increased in the Prussian provinces between the years 1819 and 1824 at the rate of twenty-five per cent., and that the finer sort of sheep have increased in a still greater ratio. It is evident, however, that the number of cattle of every description, is too inconsiderable to produce such a quantity of that necessary ingredient in husbandry, as to keep the land above its present standard of fertility; and it is also obvious that, owing to the deficient stock of the animals, from which manure is obtained, the increase of grain cannot be great. I was satisfied, adds Mr. Jacob, from my own observations, and they were strengthened by the opinion of intelligent natives, with whom I conversed, that much of the land in cultivation could not yield, on an average, more than three times as much corn as the seed that had been put into the ground.

If it were necessary that the above statement should be still further confirmed, it might be shown, that the latest and most approved statistical writers do not consider the average returns of all the four kinds of grain, or wheat, barley, rye and oats, to be more than four times the seed.

Course of cultivation.

The general course of cultivation is to fallow every third year, by ploughing three times, if intended for rye, and five times for wheat; the land being allowed to rest the whole of the year, from one autumn to another. It is admitted, that a great portion of the soil is supposed to be unfit for the growth of wheat; the part which is adapted for that grain is sown with it, if a sufficient quantity of manure can be obtained, and the remainder of the fallow ground with rye. The extent of the land sown with wheat, is thus very small; according to the opinion of many, it does not amount to one-tenth of that on which rye is grown. The last grain is an article of domestic consumption and general demand. The great majority of the inhabitants cannot afford to eat wheaten bread, and the few that can do so, commonly eat rye from choice. If there be no foreign demand for wheat, the difficulty of selling it at any price, is very great, and the little, which the limited demand of other countries has of late years required, is only confined to wheat of the best quality. Rye, on the other hand, may be always sold at a market price, which has never been in proportion so much depressed as that of wheat. The increase of wheat, it may be urged, is greater than that of rye, but as it exhausts all the manure of the farm, and as the land requires two additional ploughings,

many farmers consider it not so profitable a crop as the other. The rye, too, receives the full benefit of the fallow, and its increase is greater than that of the spring crops, which succeed it.

After the wheat or rye is harvested, oats or barley is sown in the succeeding spring. This rotation completes the course, which is again succeeded by a whole year's fallow, so that the land only bears corn two years out of every three, and the soil is so poor, that the last crop is considered a good one, if it yields three times the seed.

Implements of Husbandry.

The implements of husbandry correspond with the state of agriculture, and the nature of the soil. The land is so light that it may be easily ploughed by two small and weak oxen. Travellers have not unfrequently observed on the lands of the peasantry, a single cow attached to the plough, and while the plough was guided by the owner, the cow was led by his wife. The more tenacious soils, it is true, require a greater number of oxen; and there is an extensive tract of land in the Delta, formed by the Nogat and the Vistula, between Derschau and Marienburg, which, under a good system of agriculture, might be highly productive. Other districts of the same description might be enumerated, but all of them are inconsiderable, when compared with the surface of the country. The ploughs are all constructed with very little iron in them. The harrows are made of wood, and the teeth are of the same material, no iron can be observed in any part of them. The wagons are mere planks, laid loose on the frame, and supported on pieces of timber fixed into the sides. The cattle are attached to them by ropes, leather harness is nowhere to be seen. The use of the roller is unknown, and, in preparing the fallow ground, the clods are broken to pieces with wooden mallets.[4]

Value of live stock.

The monied value of the live stock on the farms is low. The best flocks of Merino sheep, exclusive of the wool, do not bring more than six shillings, or six shillings and eight pence a head. Cows are worth from thirty to sixty-five shillings. The variation in the price of cows is much greater than in that of sheep; and it depends on their breed, the soil on which they are pastured, and the distance from towns requiring supplies of milk and butter. The price of hay varies, according to the situation and quality, from fourteen to twenty shillings the ton.

A nobleman, whose hospitality Mr. Jacob commends, farmed his own estate of 26,000 acres. Two-thirds of it are arable, and the remaining part woodland. That individual grew only a few acres of wheat, and of late had sold no corn of any kind. As the ports of England were shut against corn, his attention was directed to raising fine wool. He kept on his estate a flock of 15,000 Merino sheep, yielding on an average two and a half pounds of fine wool, of which the annual sales amounted to one-half more than the value of the sheep. During the five winter months, the sheep were fed with corn, mostly rye, at the rate of one pound per day, which was estimated to be equal to three pounds of hay. The proprietor believed that sheep thus kept, afforded nearly as much more wool, which, added to the benefit that the manure received from that kind of food, was equal to the price he should have received for the corn, if he had sold it; and the profit of his system consisted in the value of the whole stock of his hay, which must have otherwise been consumed. Instead of selling, he found it more profitable to purchase corn.

Spirits from potatoes.

A distillery is an indispensable adjunct to every well managed farm. It is maintained in the country, that two bushels of potatoes yield as much ardent spirits as one of barley. The residuum is supposed to be equivalent, as nourishment for the draught bullocks that are fed with it, to two-thirds of the quantity before the wort is extracted. According to the process, nine bushels of potatoes are mixed with one of

[4] Jacob's Report, p. 47.

malt, to draw the wort, which is afterwards distilled, so as to produce a spirit containing eighty per cent. of alcohol; in this state a duty is exacted, that is considered a very grievous one, of six pence per gallon. Before it is sold, it is reduced to fifty per cent., and the price charged to the retailers is about fourteen pence a gallon.

Potatoes are cultivated to a great extent, and by converting them into starch and treacle, that land is made to yield a profit, which might otherwise have produced a loss. One proprietor tried to make sugar from potatoes, but did not find it advantageous; he converted them, however, into treacle, which he could afford to sell at eighteen shillings per cwt., while that from the West Indies cost twenty-four. This treacle, says Mr. Jacob, appeared to me as sweet as any from the tropics; the only perceptible difference between them, was, that it had less consistence.

Taxes. The different taxes, inasmuch as they affect the landed proprietor or farmer, may be shortly mentioned.

The land is divided into six sorts, the rent of the lowest is valued about seven pence, and that of the highest at nearly four shillings an acre. The land tax, or Grund Steuer, amounts to twenty-five per cent. on these valuations, or to a fourth part of the estimated rents. It averages something less than three pence an acre; and, according to Hassel, the whole sum collected in the three provinces is about 265,000*l.*

The other taxes are not exclusively borne by the proprietors; that for disabled soldiers, and the widows and orphans of those who fell in battle, are partly collected in the towns and burghs, but the great burden falls upon the land. The same remark is applicable to the taxes for roads, bridges, schools, and the poor. They are very different in different districts; in some parts of the country, the local taxes are equal to the Grund Steuer, in some they are greater, and in others they are less, not amounting to a tenth part of it.

The cultivators complain greatly of the heavy tax on distilleries. But it is doubtful if the effect of the tax tends to diminish the consumption of the grain, from which spirits may be extracted. It is not unreasonable to suppose, from the mode in which the tax is levied, that the landlords are benefitted by it; for those who have distilleries on their estates, pay the duty on very strong spirits, and sell to the retailers after it has been reduced.

The other taxes bear no more on those engaged in agriculture, than on the other members of the community. They are chiefly imposed on the consumption of foreign commodities, and paid by the consumers, from whatever source they may draw the revenue from which they are enabled to indulge in the use of them.

If the public burdens be estimated by the number of inhabitants, it is calculated that each individual in these provinces pays about ten shillings annually, in the form of taxes.

It has been attempted of late years to establish manufactories in the maritime provinces; the chief inducement was the cheapness of provisions, and consequently the low price of labour. These attempts, however, have been made on a small scale, and they have not hitherto been attended with success; but it is not very improbable, if the restrictive system continue, that a new branch of industry may in time be created, for which the nature and situation of the country, as well as the habits of the people, are ill adapted.

We shall conclude these remarks by quoting part of a memoir, that has been extensively circulated among the land owners in Prussia.

"The prevailing opinion, that the production of corn, in all countries, greatly exceeds the consumption, or that immense quantities are hoarded up in different granaries, is altogether erroneous. The notion of a vast abundance is imaginary, for the following reasons:

"1. Because agriculture has been extended in those countries, which obtained formerly from the north the deficiency required for the subsistence of their inhabitants, and of late years several harvests have been rich and abundant.

"2. Because the corn traders, in the corn countries, have almost ceased to exist in that capacity; and the few that remain, are anxious to dispose of their stock, and have their corn partly stored in foreign countries.

"3. The quantities in the hands of the farmers are very insignificant. The stock hoarded up formerly by the corn traders and farmers, was much greater, perhaps five times as much as it is at present. The impoverished condition, to which the great corn factors in all the northern sea ports have been reduced, and the scarcity of money with almost all the farmers, has rendered the accumulation of large quantities of corn impossible; and besides, the bad quality of the grain for some years past, did not even allow it. It is a difficult task, nay, perhaps impracticable, to give an accurate estimate of the surplus quantities of corn in all the countries of Europe. But according to a calculation which seems not widely distant from the truth, the grain accumulated in Europe, including wheat, rye, barley, and oats, amounts to three millions six hundred and eighty thousand quarters; namely,

	Quarters.
In Germany, exclusive of the Prussian dominions	581,000
Prussian dominions	775,000
Poland and Russia	581,000
Denmark	194,000
England	580,000
The Netherlands	388,000
France, Spain, Portugal, and the ports of the Black Sea	581,000
	3,680,000

"The bonded corn in England, which amounts to about four hundred thousand quarters, is included in this statement. All these quantities, however, are insufficient to supply a great deficiency in the crop of one large country, nor does it even amount to a fourth part of what is necessary for the subsistence of its inhabitants. That the above mentioned surplus may hereafter be increased, is indeed very improbable, for the consumption of men and cattle is annually increasing, while the production of corn is diminishing. The corn at present under bond in England, is not equal to the thirtieth part of its annual consumption, and the whole surplus quantity in Europe, is not sufficient to supply the inhabitants of France with bread for a single month.

"It is obvious, if the corn trade were free every where, the prices would be higher, at least they were so in former years, when the accumulation was probably five times greater than it is at present. But many years must elapse before that trade can be free, and it is, therefore, incumbent on us to take every means for averting the present distress without delay. Whether, and how far, the following plan might promote the end proposed, is left for the public to judge.

"From the system of erecting granaries, as proposed some time ago, little benefit can be expected, for reasons which have been already sufficiently examined. If this plan were adopted, it might tend to strengthen the opinion entertained by foreigners, that large quantities of grain have been accumulated in the country, an error that has been very detrimental to us The exportation of flour to South America, is as yet too inconsiderat to affect beneficially the prices. It is, therefore, the opinion of the autl of this memoir, that it is only by the annihilation of very considera

quantities of grain that the prices can be raised; and situated as we are, it can be effected in no other way than by an increased consumption of our agricultural produce.

"It was only now and then that an agriculturist found it profitable to feed his finest flocks with part of his corn. When the price of wool, however, rose considerably, the advantage of feeding with corn became obvious, and the system was found to remunerate, for wool has risen from thirty to thirty-three per cent. The feeding with grain may thus be continued on an extensive scale, and it may surely deserve consideration as being an effectual means of raising the price of corn.

"The well known political causes that have given rise to a greater consumption of wool, lead us to believe that the present high prices may maintain themselves still longer. It is true, that the same causes must effect an increase in the production of wool; this, however, from the steps of nature itself, can be done but gradually; and as it is a well known rule, founded on experience in rural economy, that a sheep, when allowed in the winter season, besides the ordinary food of hay, straw, &c., an extra supply from eighty-five to ninety-six pounds weight of corn, yields from half to three-quarters of a pound, and sometimes more, wool; it follows that the feeding of a hundred sheep, with a hundred and fifty-five bushels of rye, would by this means yield an increase in the produce of wool, of seventy-one pounds weight at least.

"By this system the following prices might be obtained for the bushel of rye; namely—

1*s.* 11*d.* if wool brings 4*s.* 2½*d.* the pound weight.
1*s.* 3½*d.* . . 2*s.* 10½*d.*
And 1*s.* . . 2*s.* 2*d.*

"To this must be added the profits arising from fattening the animal itself, and which are by no means inconsiderable. They may be estimated at three shillings on each sheep, and as those destined for the butcher market, form, generally, the fourth part of the flock, another six pence may be added to the price of the bushel of corn.

"The number of fine wooled sheep in Germany, is not less than eight, and perhaps not more than ten millions. Prussia alone contains at least four millions; and if only half that number be fed on corn, all the surplus quantity that is complained of as an incumbrance, might be at once annihilated, and a considerable rise in the price of corn would finally take place. This measure might, perhaps, have an influence on foreign countries, as our surplus corn could then be no longer an object of consideration with them.

"It is not to be apprehended, that this substantial food would lower the price of wool; the increase of wool would amount to no more than two or three millions of pounds weight, while the consumption of England and France is actually forty millions of pounds weight at least. Besides, the higher price of corn being a consequence of this system, might then counterbalance any deficit in the price of wool, which may arise from the greater production of that article."

TABLES.*

An account of the quantities of Wheat, Rye, Barley, Oats, Beans and Peas, exported from East Prussia, West Prussia, and Pomerania, from the year 1816 *to the commencement of* 1825.

	1816. Wheat.	Barley, Rye. Oats.	1817. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats, &c.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
East Prussia.				
Exported from Koenigsberg - -	54,172	121,150	69,065	316,557
Pillau and Memel -	2,871	43,853	6,815	
	57,043	165,003	75,880	413,683
West Prussia.				
From Dantzig - -	140,199	59,815	231,669	172,003
Elbing - -	37,357	23,808	52,382	91,779
	177,556	83,623	284,051	263,782
Pomerania.				
From Stettin - -	1,693 To Sweden 1018 Holland 657	2,302 To Holland and England.	15,389 To Great Britain 14,978 Sweden 209 Spain 502	9,079 To Great Britain.
Other ports of Pomerania	30,167	84,151	37,928	115,057
	31,860	86,453	53,317	124,136
Total exportation -	266,459	335,079	413,248	801,601
	1818.		1819.	
East Prussia.				
From Koenigsberg -			12,793	157,151
Pillau and Memel -	No Returns		618	54,715
			13,411	211,866
West Prussia.				
Dantzig - -	294,986	94,441	84,747	72,867
Elbing - - -	58,485	89,559	15,155	65,532
	353,471	184,000	99,902	138,399
Pomerania.				
Stettin - - -	98,640 To Great Britain	33,745 Great Britain 32,719 Spain 510 Denmark 98 France 418	5,594 To Great Britain.	53,652 Great Britain 52,411 Denmark 509 Hamburgh 729
Other ports of Pomerania	36,343	82,872	36,148	91,241
	134,983	116,617	41,742	144,893
Total exportation -			155,055	495,158

* The above Tables are taken from Mr. Jacob's First Report.

	1820. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats.	1821. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats, &c.
East Prussia.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
Exported from Koenigsberg - - -	39,954	160,429	16,676	30,371
Pillau and Memel -	5,369	82,651	565	7,205
	45,323	243,080	17,241	37,576
West Prussia.				
Dantzig - - -	323,917	49,155	166,855	18,885
Elbing - - -	37,581	47,912	18,963	8,300
	361,498	97,067	185,818	27,185
Pomerania.				
From Stettin - -	5,957 To Great Britain.	6,277 Great Britain 5,552 Denmark 725	1,228 No Returns	8,272 No Returns
Other ports in Pomerania	51,966	86,716	40,553	80,211
	57,923	92,993	41,781	88,483
Total Exportation -	464,744	433,140	244,840	153,244
	1822.		1823.	
East Prussia.				
From Koenigsberg -	9,603	7,550	4,689	15,448
Pillau and Memel -	1,174		38	2,046
	10,777	7,550	4,727	17,494
West Prussia.				
Dantzig - - -		316	57,281	61,081
Elbing - - -	18,098	5,618	12,571	20,001
	18,098	5,934	69,852	81,082
Pomerania.				
Stettin - - -	2,413 Great Britain 949 Spain 1464	4,924 To Great Britain.	167 To Great Britain.	5,622 Great Britain 5301 Denmark 321
Other ports in Pomerania	47,028	61,894	46,946	49,965
	49,441	66,818	47,113	55,587
Total Exportation -	78,316	80,302	121,692	154,163
	1824.	1824.		
East Prussia.				
From Koenigsberg -	10,969	37,942		
Pillau and Memel -	1,123	4,044		
	12,092	41,986		
West Prussia.				
From Dantzig - -	58,680	19,742		
Elbing - - -	4,789	4,045		
	63,469	23,787		
Pomerania.				
From Stettin - -	1,646 To Spain.	10,811 To Great Britain.		
Other ports in Pomerania	24,711	111,405		
	26,537	122,216		
Total Exportation -	101,918	187,989		

Comparative Table of Exportation and Importation in the years from 1816 *to* 1824.

	Importation.		Exportation.		Excess of Exportation.		Excess of Importation.		
	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.	
Years.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Years.
1816	156,660	158,816	266,459	335,084	109,799	176,268	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1816
1817	244,660	413,646	413,248	801,501	168,588	387,955	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1817
1818	300,223	213,870	- - - -	- - - - -	No returns	of the exportation	of East Prus-	sia during the year	1818
1819	315,092	311,340	155,055	495,158	- - - - -	183,818	160,037	- - - - - - - - - -	1819
1820	296,616	279,471	464,744	453,140	168,128	153,669	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1820
1821	83,283	139,219	194,840	153,224	111,557	14,025	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1821
1822	38,504	67,097	78,316	80,302	39,812	13,205	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1822
1823	65,119	37,800	121,692	154,163	56,573	116,363	- - - - -	- - - - - - - - - -	1823
1824	149,154	14,376	101,918	187,989	- - - - -	173,613	47,236	- - - - - - - - - -	1824

TABLE II.

An Account of the average Prices of Corn in the Market of Berlin on St. Martin's day, from the year 1774 to 1824.

Year.	Wheat Quarter.		Rye Quarter.		Winter Barley Quarter.		Summer Barley Quarter.		Oats Quarter.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1774	25	2	18	3	13	3	11	9	8	5
1775	24	4	19	4	15	3	13	3	11	2
1776	19	0	14	4	12	7	11	11	8	9
1777	20	0	13	3	11	9	10	7	8	9
1778	23	3	15	6	11	11	11	3	8	7
1779	18	7	14	10	10	7	10	0	8	1
1780	21	3	19	2	12	8	11	7	9	10
1781	22	11	21	0	15	2	14	10	11	8
1782	22	11	21	0	17	3	16	8	12	11
1783	27	6	21	10	16	7	15	2	11	0
1784	25	2	18	5	16	8	15	10	11	0
1785	27	4	21	2	15	2	13	7	11	7
1786	29	6	22	2	15	2	13	7	10	4
1787	24	2	18	1	13	10	12	1	10	2
1788	26	11	19	2	15	6	14	2	11	10
1789	33	4	21	10	17	7	16	4	12	10
1790	26	3	22	0	18	3	16	2	12	11
1791	27	4	19	2	15	6	13	11	11	0
1792	26	5	19	10	16	7	16	6	11	7
1793	27	1	20	0	17	3	16	6	11	0
1794	31	4	25	10	20	8	20	8	15	2
1795	39	0	23	10	23	6	23	7	17	3
1796	28	9	17	11	16	7	14	10	10	4
1797	29	8	20	4	17	3	14	6	10	8
1798	31	8	26	8	20	10	18	1	15	10
1799	39	5	26	6	24	6	21	11	15	9
1800	39	1	35	4	23	7	19	9	13	11
1801	42	4	29	8	25	10	21	9	19	9
1802	47	2	41	4	32	8	29	8	26	4
1803	56	10	27	9	27	1	23	3	14	10
1804	56	6	49	6	34	6	28	9	20	0
1805	60	1	57	6	40	8	34	10	29	1
1806	77	6	61	4	58	1	56	2	31	8
1807	49	8	27	5	31	8	26	2	22	11
1808	45	6	42	6	37	4	34	1	20	4
1809	27	9	20	4	17	10	16	10	11	0
1810	26	0	16	0	16	4	14	7	12	3
1811	38	8	26	10	20	8	17	2	13	6
1812	38	0	25	2	20	1	19	10	13	3
1813	36	8	26	5	24	6	22	1	17	3
1814	39	4	28	8	22	7	20	0	15	2
1815	38	3	25	8	19	4	20	2	13	11
1816	65	10	45	5	36	6	30	4	19	6
1817	54	7	43	1	36	10	33	8	25	7
1818	51	8	38	1	35	6	29	8	20	10
1819	34	0	24	6	22	9	21	11	17	10
1820	31	8	18	0	15	0	13	11	9	10
1821	30	8	16	2	13	4	11	4	9	6
1822	26	10	21	2	17	1	14	4	14	7
1823	26	6	14	0	12	4	11	2	8	11
1824	20	4	11	6	10	11	11	0	7	10

BOOK CXIX.

EUROPE.

Description of Germany—Third Section—Great Dutchies of Mecklenburg and Oldenburg—Kingdom of Hanover.

The countries that have been described, are not perhaps calculated to excite the same interest as others of more importance in the political balance of Europe—the opposite weights on which its equilibrium depends. Since we left the dominions of that colossal power, which may in time dictate laws to Europe, and consequently to the world, we have examined countries more or less subject to its influence. That region which is still known by the name of Poland, and which still retains the title of kingdom, is nothing more than a dependence on Russia. Prussia, too, from its point of contact with the same formidable neighbour, must be, in many respects, a secondary power. How much more insignificant then are the principalities of Mecklenburg, Oldenburg, or even the kingdom of Hanover, likely to appear, when contrasted with the Russian empire? But if these petty states and others that shall be afterwards mentioned, are of little or no importance in a political point of view, it cannot be denied that their inhabitants ought to be better governed, and therefore happier than others, scattered over an immense extent of territory. If their princes are less involved in the policy of foreign states, if cabinet and court intrigues are less frequent, they are better able to discover the wants of their subjects, propose wise laws, and found useful institutions.

Mecklenburg, position.

Mecklenburg forms two great dutchies, the one of Schwerin, the other of Strelitz, they are governed by two branches of the same family. The country, which is divided into these two principalities, is bounded on the south by Hanover and the Prussian province of Brandenburg, on the east by a part of the same province, and Pomerania, on the north by the Baltic, and lastly, on the west by Holstein. Its population amounts to 475,500 inhabitants, and the superficial extent of the country to 260 German square miles, consequently, the average number of individuals for every German square mile, is equal to 1828.

Ancient inhabitants.

It is probable that the most ancient inhabitants of the country formed a part of that Scandinavian race, known in Europe during the middle ages by the name of Vandals. When these northern tribes invaded and conquered the countries that submitted to the degenerate Romans, the Vandals, who inhabited Mecklenburg, abandoned that territory, which was soon occupied by Wends and several Slavonic tribes; but in a short time the Obotriti remained the only masters of the land.

Antiquity of the house of Mecklenburg.

If some authors may be credited, the family of the Dukes of Mecklenburg must be very ancient.[f] According to their opinion, that family was descended from Genseric, king of the Vandals, who devastated Rome in the year 455 of the Christian era. Others believe it to have been founded by Wislas or Wisilas, king of the Herules, the ancestor of Mistew the Second, surnamed the *Strong*. We may, therefore, without making the antiquity of the family greater than it is, suppose that it existed in the time of Charlemagne. Mistew the Second died about

[f] J. Bocer de Reg. et Reb. gestis ducum Meckl. *Albert Glantz*, historia Vandal. Geographisch. statistsche Darstellung, &c. by F. W. Crome.

the year 1025. It has been maintained by some antiquarians that he was baptized, but that assumption is very improbable. Godsfal, the son of Eude, was in all likelihood the first Christian of the family; he was honoured with the double title of the martyr and apostle of his subjects, and it is supposed that he founded the bishopric of Schwerin. Whether he did so or not, may be considered uncertain, but it must be admitted that his example was not followed by his successor Pribislas, who took the title of king of the Obitriti, and was converted by Albert the Bear in the year 1151. Policy, not conviction, appears to have been the cause of his conversion. Expelled from his states by Henry the Lion, duke of Bavaria and Saxony, he did not return until after his baptism. Much about the same time he renounced the title of king, and assumed that of prince of Mecklenburg, which his successors have retained.

Some of these princes may be mentioned; John, surnamed the Young, founded the University of Rostock; John Albert, who died in 1576, established the protestant religion in his dominions; lastly, Adolphus Frederick was dethroned in 1628, by the emperor Ferdinand II., for having united with the enemies of the house of Austria; his states were ceded to Walstein. The emperor restored him to his protection after the peace of Prague, but not until the king of Sweden had placed him again on the throne. He was the father of two princes, Frederick and Adolphus Frederick, the chiefs of the two branches of the Mecklenburg family. These princes, after the death of their father, divided his dominions. The first founded the family of Schwerin, the second that of Strelitz. The two principalities have ever since remained separate; in the year 1808, they were included in the confederation of the Rhine, and it was not before 1815, that the princes took the titles of great dukes.

Soil. Mecklenburg consists of a large and sandy plain, in the midst of which are forests and lakes; the latter are indeed more numerous than the towns; all of them abound in fish, and the largest are those of Plau, Malchin, Müritz, Klummerow, Schwerin, Schaal, Koelpin, Ratzeburg, Tollen, and Petersdorf. Some hills rise near the centre of these plains; Ruhnenberg or the highest was supposed to be 577 feet above the level of the Baltic Sea; but M. Hassel considers it equal, at least, to 641. Petersil, another hill of less elevation, is situated in the great dutchy of Strelitz; Hoheburg, a third, rises to the height of 495 feet.

Heilige-Damm. The Heilige-Damm or holy dike, a name that indicates, perhaps, the veneration in which it was held by the early inhabitants, consists of low and flat stones of different sizes and different colours. They are situated in the neighbourhood of the town of Dobberan, and serve as a barrier against the impetuous sea, which breaks on them. They occupy a surface of more than two miles in length, and about fifteen yards in breadth; their height varies from twelve to sixteen feet. The manner in which the different stones are united, excites the admiration of all who observe them. The dike has been considered one of the most ancient religious monuments of the northern tribes. All the stones are polished, and joined without cement; one may trace on them different figures, that appear to have some connexion with the Scandinavian mythology.

Sand. The sands of Mecklenburg abound with Silex, and rest on deposites of chalk, which, as has been already observed, appears without any covering on the island of Rugen. This statement may be confirmed by the great quantity of silex, echinites and other shell-fish, covered with particles of flint, that are thrown on these shores; besides, the chalk is visible in the pits and wells that are dug in the country. Although the sandy soil descends to a considerable depth, it is not, in many places, contiguous to the chalk, but separated from it by a stratum of argil, mixed with vegetable remains and lignites or fossil wood, which, as we had occasion to remark, contains, probably, the nucleus of amber.

The climate of Mecklenburg, though temperate, is rendered moist from the number of lakes and marshes. The inhabitants rear a great many oxen and horses, the latter are valuable on account of their size, strength and swiftness. | Climate.

The agricultural produce is abundant; it consists of potatoes, the ordinary kinds of grain, hemp, hops, and excellent pasturage, that grows on the extensive and fruitful meadows. It is certain that husbandry has been much improved, and that wastes covered with marshes or sterile sand, have been changed into fertile plains by the hand of man. | Principal productions.

The great dutchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz is made up of the lands attached to the towns of Friedland, Furstemburg, Weisenberg, the burgh of Mirow, and New Strelitz, the capital. All the rest of the country belongs to the family of Schwerin. | Territorial division.

The government, the civil institutions, the distinctions that subsist between the nobles, burgesses and peasants, are not widely different in the two principalities; whatever observations may be made relatively to the one, are not inapplicable to the other; our remarks may, therefore, be confined to the dutchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The right of primogeniture regulates the succession, and the heir is supposed to arrive at majority at the age of eighteen. The younger princes are entitled to appanages, and each of the princesses receives a dowry, which has been estimated at 20,000 rix-dollars. According to a treaty, concluded in the year 1442, between the houses of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg, the second family succeeds to the principality after the extinction of the first. | Government.

It appears from other treaties, of as ancient a date as the year 1572, and which have been often renewed, that the great duke must share with the nobles the right of administering justice, and imposing taxes. Different assemblies watch over the privileges of the different districts. Lastly, the nobles in the two dutchies make up a separate body, which has been called the *Old Union of the Country* (*Alte Landes Union.*)

Three provincial marshals are chosen from the lords, and their office is the highest distinction that can be attained by a hundred and twelve noble families. The marshals form, with eight counsellors and the deputy of Rostock, an assembly, to which the management of the provinces is committed. Deputies are likewise nominated by the principal towns in the dutchy; they meet every year, and are called together by the great duke. It is their office to examine contributions, and propose laws; their opinions are presented in writing to the prince. They have also the right to make known the complaints of their constituents, and to insist that abuses may be abolished. Private assemblies of the nobles, are held in the towns where justice is administered; but the sovereign must be informed whenever it is deemed necessary to convoke a provincial council. The most of the towns have the privilege of choosing their mayors and magistrates, but every judge is appointed by the prince. | Marshals and deputies.

The efforts made by the German princes in 1813, in order that their subjects might shake off a foreign yoke, induced them to make concessions and promises, which must, ere long, be fulfilled. It cannot be doubted that the many privations and hardships, borne by the people, the sacrifices they made, and their heroic conduct, must be partly attributed to the future improvements, privileges and immunities that were held out to them at the time. The dukes of Mecklenburg, more fortunate than other princes, have found no obstacles in fulfilling engagements, that are by so much the more sacred, as kings are responsible for abuses, which it is in their power to correct. At the time of the last coalition against France, the dukes of Mecklenburg levied many contributions, and furnished an extraordinary contingent of 19,000 troops to the German | Peasantry.

league. The abolition of servitude was to have been the reward of the most numerous and most oppressed class of the community. There were then some free labourers, but the most of the peasants could not quit the domain to which they belonged without the permission of the proprietors, nor choose a different way of life than that in which they were brought up, nor a different trade than that of their fathers. It was in the power of an unjust master to prevent a peasant from marrying, and he could, as Stein affirms, inflict humiliating punishment on any whom he supposed negligent in performing their task. Thus the peasant was wholly dependent on his lord, and had merely the right of making known his complaints to the provincial tribunal, the legislators supposing it unnecessary to mitigate his condition, or that the mention of his grievances was sufficient to get them redressed. Because the proprietor was obliged to maintain him in years of scarcity, to furnish him with medicines and medical advice, when suffering from disease, and to support him when unable to labour from old age, it was argued that his condition was preferable to that of a free peasant, who gained an uncertain subsistence by the sweat of his brow. As if the consciousness of submitting to a shameful servitude did not poison all the kindness that a slave expects from his master. Fortunately for Mecklenburg, its princes have been actuated by enlightened views and proper feeling in determining a question in which many conflicting interests were involved. The peasants in that country have enjoyed since 1820, an invaluable prerogative, individual liberty. The country must one day experience all the advantages of that great improvement; land must be equally divided; and honest industry may enable those to become proprietors, who were formerly attached to the soil.

Landed proprietors.

It is no longer doubted that the division of land among a numerous class of proprietors, increases the affluence and prosperity of a country. The ducal domains in Mecklenburg are not less than four-tenths of the whole surface, the nobility possess five-tenths, and the remaining tenth is the property of the towns. The peasants cannot as yet acquire land, but contributions, imposts and extraordinary taxes are paid by every class of the community. The comparatively small number of inhabitants is to be accounted for by these causes; the two dutchies are equal in extent to 720 square leagues; the population amounts to 486,000, or, on an average for every square league, to 675 individuals, a number that might be much more considerable in a country which is in other respects so well governed. It has been observed, however, that the number of inhabitants was not so great before the year 1820, and that it has always augmented since that period. Thus the continued increase in the population results, as a necessary consequence, from the abolition of slavery, which, like the harpies in the fable, occasions a pestilence wherever it exists.

Religion.

The reigning families, and the most of the inhabitants in the two dutchies, are Lutherans, or to speak more correctly, they adhere to the Augsburg confession. The clergy are subject to the jurisdiction of their consistories. The rest of the inhabitants are Calvinists, Catholics and Jews; all of them are allowed the public exercise of their worship. One may observe, besides temples and synagogues, convents that are now inhabited by the daughters of nobles and burgesses. The purpose of the last institutions has been changed since the reformation; the influence and authority of the bishops have been transferred to the nobles. The Jews obtained all the rights of citizens in 1813, but the children sprung from the marriage of Jewish and Catholic parents must be brought up in the Christian faith.

Great dutchy of Strelitz.

It is unnecessary to say much of the towns in the great dutchy of Strelitz; indeed, there are not any of much importance. Stargard, which is commanded by an old castle, need only be mentioned

on account of its porcelain and cloth manufactories, for its population is little more than one thousand souls. Friedland contains 4000; but the preparation of tobacco is the only branch of industry in which its inhabitants are engaged. New-Brandenburg, on the lake of Tollen, is peopled by 5000 souls; its trade consists in spirits, cloth, linen and cotton manufactures. Alt-Strelitz or Old-Strelitz is a town of 3000 inhabitants, and many of them are employed in dressing leather, or preparing tobacco. The largest buildings are a work-house and a lunatic asylum. Neu-Strelitz or New-Strelitz, the capital, has been remarked for the regularity with which it is built, all its straight and broad streets terminate in a common centre. It is the seat of the highest courts in the country; the principal buildings are the ducal palace, a gymnasium, a fine school of arts, and a seminary for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters. The population is upwards of 5300 souls, and its trade consists chiefly in iron, cutlery and arms.

Great dutchy of Schwerin.

The towns are larger and more numerous in the great dutchy of Schwerin. Wismar is situated on a gulf; it contains, according to Hassel, 8352 inhabitants. Spacious docks, for building ships, have been erected; but the other public works are comparatively insignificant. The church of St. Mary is the largest of any in the town, and in it are preserved several relics that are connected with miraculous traditions. Rostock on the Warnow is the most important town in the country; its population amounts to 15,300 souls; the expenses of its university, which still possesses some celebrity, are defrayed by the great duke and the mayor of the town. Other seminaries of learning might be mentioned, and also a society of natural history that has been long established, several distinguished naturalists are included in the number of its members. The principal buildings are the mint, the arsenal, the dock-yards, the convent, and nine churches; in one of them, that of St. Mary, may be seen an urn in which the heart of the celebrated Grotius is deposited. The town enjoys several important privileges; it fixes the amount of its contributions, possesses the right of navigating and fishing in the Warnow; and different immunities which it is unnecessary to specify. The salt water baths at Dobberin, in the neighbourhood of the town, are well known on account of the healing virtue that is attributed to them; and they are perhaps the most commodious and the best built of any in Germany.

Schwerin.

Schwerin, formerly Schwelfe, contains a population of 10,237 inhabitants; it is situated between two lakes; the largest, or the lake of the same name, is upwards of five leagues in length, from north to south. Schwerin is divided into the old and new town, the last of which has been said to be better built than any other in Mecklenburg, yet there are not many public buildings; some churches, a synagogue, the mint and a hospital are all that can be mentioned. The ducal palace is built on an island, and situated near the middle of the lake Schwerin. In the interior of the castle is a gallery of valuable paintings, together with a collection of coins and medals, and a museum of natural history. The gardens, though visited by strangers, are inferior to those round the castle of Lewisburg, a country seat belonging to the duke, about five leagues from Scwerin. Nothing, indeed, can exceed the beauty of these gardens; they are situated in the midst of a fine country, and planned with great taste after the English manner.

Trade.

The trade of Schwerin consists chiefly in spirits, cloth and tobacco.

The commerce of the great dutchy of Mecklenburg has been gradually increasing; but of all its ports, that of Rostock, or rather Warnemunde, which is dependent on the town of Rostock, is the most frequented. The number of vessels that enter it every year, amounts nearly to seven hundred. Grain, butter, cheese, tobacco, naval timber, horses, oxen and pigs are the

principal exports of the country. It receives oil, tallow and hemp from Russia; wines from France; iron, herring and cod from Sweden; tin, lead, coal, and different manufactures from England. Commerce might be much increased in the interior, if the old roads were improved, or new ones made, if canals were opened, by which easy communications might be formed in every direction, and the labour of cutting them is facilitated by the great number of lakes in the country.

Revenue, &c. | The revenue and military force are very different in the two great dutchies. Three thousand six hundred troops are paid by government in Schwerin, and the revenue amounts to 2,400,000 florins. The population of Strelitz does not exceed 76,000 souls; a corps of 700 men is maintained, and the total revenue is not more than 50,000 florins.

Great dutchy of Oldenburg. | It is necessary to traverse Hanover in order to arrive at a petty state, which extends on the right bank of the Lower Weser. The great dutchy of Holstein-Oldenburg is limited on the north by the North Sea, on the east by the river that has been already mentioned, and in every other direction by the kingdom of Hanover. The extent of its surface may be equal to two hundred and ninety-two leagues, and the population, according to the last census, which was made in 1822, amounts to 196,000 souls, or on an average to six hundred and seventy-one individuals for every square league; on the whole, therefore, the country is, in proportion to its size, less populous than Mecklenburg. But the great duke is the sovereign of more states than Oldenburg; he rules over two small and remote principalities. The first, or Lubeck, is surrounded by Holstein, and distant about forty leagues from the town of Oldenburg; the second, or Birkenfeld, on the banks of the Nahe, is more than eighty leagues to the south of the same capital. The number of inhabitants in the three states are not less than 240,700 persons, and as they are scattered over a surface of three hundred and forty-one square leagues, the two principalities are proportionably better peopled than the dutchy, so that the average term of the population subject to the great duke is not less than seven hundred and six individuals for every square league.

Ancient inhabitants. | Little is known concerning the ancient inhabitants; it is agreed, however, that they belonged to that Cimbro-Saxon race, which, before the fourth century of the christian era, possessed the lands near the Elbe, the Rhine, and the shores of the North Sea. The country, it cannot be doubted, was more marshy at that remote period than at present; a great part of it, indeed, must have been uninhabitable. These ancient tribes of hunters and fishers were mostly collected near the mouth of the Weser, and on the banks of the Jahde.

Princes of Oldenburg. | Sigefroi I. the sixth descendant in direct line from Wittikind the Great, is mentioned by some authors among the princes of Oldenburg.[h] It is certain that Christiern of Oldenburg, was succeeded in the fourth century by his son Theodoric, who was surnamed the Fortunate, probably on account of his marriage with Hedwige, the heiress of Sleswick and Holstein. The same prince was the father of Christiern the I., who reigned in Denmark, and of Gerard his successor in the dutchy of Oldenburg. Gerard was styled the Warlike, because he frequently made war against Christiern, and endeavoured to deprive him of the states which were left him by his mother. He had the misfortune, however, of being vanquished, and made prisoner, not by a warrior like himself, but by Henry of Schwartzenburg, archbishop of Bremin, and bishop of Munster, by whom he was sent into exile, an event that tended probably to shorten his life: he died in France in the year 1500. In these days there were other causes of offence, and other scandals in the church, besides that of seeing ecclesiastics engaged in war, and sullied with blood on the

[h] J. Elvervelt de Nobilitate et urbibus Holsatiæ. Petersen, Chron. Holsatiæ. Dictionary of Moreri, Holstein.

field of battle. The descendants of Gerard reigned over Oldenburg; but Antony Gontier, the last of these princes, having died without heirs, his states passed in 1667 into the house of Denmark, from which they were transferred in 1773 to the great duke Paul, afterwards emperor of Russia; the principality was at the same time changed into a dutchy. Paul ceded the dutchy in 1785 to his cousin Peter Frederick William, a member of the ducal family of Holstein-Gottorp. But the dutchy was annihilated in 1810, and the territory added to the different countries, which made up a new French department, the Mouths of the Weser. Three years afterwards, the prince was enabled by the political changes in Europe to enter his dominions. Lastly, in 1815, the congress of Vienna conferred on him the title of great duke, and ceded to him the principality of Birkenfeld, which has been already mentioned; the emperor of Russia made over to him, much about the same time, the seigniory of Jever.

Soil.

The dutchy of Oldenburg is, on the whole, a low country, but some heights which extend along the coast, defend it against the encroachments of the sea. The land on the banks of rivers is rich and fruitful, but the rest of the country is sandy and unproductive. The sand rests, as in Mecklenburg, on a deposite of chalk.

Precious stones.

The same appearances are observed in the principality of Lubeck, but the soil and the rocks in Birkenfeld are widely different, and much more interesting to the geologist. It is well known that an immense quantity of agates, jaspers and calcedonies are collected in the neighbourhood of the village of Oberstein; it is also known that the industry of the inhabitants has been directed to the natural wealth of their country, the importance of which shall be afterwards explained. It is sufficient at present to state the conflicting opinions of the best writers, concerning the origin of the rocks from which these agates are obtained.

The rocks form extensive hills; they are hard and of a blackish colour; they appear to be similar to those which Haüy designates by the name of *aphanites*, such, at least, appears, in all probability, to be the opinion of a celebrated writer.[i] But it has been affirmed by a Belgian geologist, that these hills are the products of the ocean, and of the intermediate formation, which has succeeded that of granite.[k] M. Humboldt supposes their formation still more recent,—contemporaneous with those deposites of red sandstone and porphyry that accompany the vast strata of coal.[l] Lastly, Faujas and Cordier believe the rocks of Oberstein to be volcanic products.[m] Although it may be difficult to decide amidst so many opposite opinions, all of them supported by distinguished geologists, we are led, from the analogy between these rocks and others of a volcanic nature, to attribute to them a common origin.

Agricultural produce.

Some parts of Oldenburg are fruitful in pasturage; the inhabitants rear sheep, oxen, and a great many horses, which are almost as much prized as those of Mecklenburg. The most of the peasants keep pigs, and geese, of which the quills are exported into different parts of Germany. The climate too is favourable to bees, but it is only in certain parts of the country that they can be kept with advantage. The most of the interior is ill adapted for agriculture, and covered in many places with heaths and marshes; one may travel for several hours in the south-west districts without seeing a tree or a single habitation. It may thus be easily believed that the grain produced is inadequate to the consumption of the inhabitants. None of the forests are extensive, indeed it might be difficult to supply even the wealthiest classes with fuel, were it not for the facility with which peats may be obtained. Among the plants that are cultivated, are hops and lint; the first is used in the numerous breweries, the second

[i] D'Aubuisson de Voisin, Traité de Geognosie, tom. ii. p. 224. [k] M. Omalius d'Halloy, Journal des Mines, tom. xxiv. pp. 136, 141. [l] Voyages, tom. i. p. 343.
[m] Voyage Geologique à Oberstein.

in the manufactories, that have been erected in different parts of the country. Not the least portion of the territorial wealth consists in flocks and herds. The wool is not only used in making cloth; stocking weavers purchase a great part of it; the commerce produced by that branch of industry, is considerable, for the value of the stockings that are made in the districts of Kloppenburg and Vechta, and afterwards exported or sold in the country, amounts every year to 100,000 crowns.

Wandering Peasants. Humling, or the highest district in the country, forms a large and sandy heath sufficiently provided with herbage to afford pasture for sheep; the inhabitants have no other riches than their flocks and bees. Their sheep supply them with coarse wool, and their bees yield a great quantity of honey. The peasants quit the high region in the spring, and carry their hives along with them to the low northern plains, where many of the fields are sown with rape. After that plant has been reaped, they transport their bees to the marshy districts in which buckwheat is cultivated; they remain there until the heather in their own country is covered with flowers.

It might be worth while for travellers to observe more minutely the manner of life, customs and industry of these peasants. The state of society, which would be thus exhibited, might be found to be similar in some respects to that of several wandering tribes that are mentioned in the Bible.

Fishings. The sea and river fishings in the country of Oldenburg are very productive, they furnish the means of employment and subsistence to a great many individuals.

Climate. The most northern part of the dutchy is exposed to a cold and humid atmosphere, which may be accounted for from its proximity to the sea, and also from the form of the bay of Jahde, a gulf that penetrates into the land to the distance of sixteen miles, and is so called from the little river that falls into it. The district that borders on the bay, is subject to violent north winds; the cold season lasts longer than in the rest of the country, although the spring and the summers throughout Oldenburg are later than in other parts of Germany, situated under the same parallel. The evenings and nights are often very cold in the midst of summer, and the sudden change of temperature has been considered the cause of dangerous and frequent diseases.

Language. The German is spoken by the Oldenburghers, but it is not supposed that they speak it well; at all events, their pronunciation has been condemned by German purists.

Religion. A great portion of the inhabitants are Lutherans, there are, however, a considerable number of Catholics, many Calvinists, and several Jews; no political restraints are imposed on the different sects. The Lutherans are in possession of a hundred and one churches, of which the government is committed to three superintendents. A moderator presides in the assemblies of the Calvinists. The Catholics have not fewer than thirty-seven parishes, and all of them are subject to the inspection of a dean. A consistory is the highest ecclesiastical court that the Lutherans acknowledge, and its jurisdiction extends not only over their different churches, but also over their different seminaries and places of education.

Government. The great duke of Oldenburg, as the sovereign of the country, is at the head of a supreme council; to his deliberation every matter of importance is intrusted. The different members of the administration are responsible to another council, over which the minister of the duke presides. A third council regulates the revenue and expenditure.

Justice. A court of chancery and a court of appeal are the highest tribunals, and the subordinate officers are magistrates and bailiffs. The country is divided into districts, balliwicks and parishes. The magistrate of each district judges in the first instance, but his decision

may be revoked by the court of chancery, from which the parties are at liberty to appeal to the supreme court of justice.

Oldenburg, the capital of the dutchy, and the most important town from its population, which amounts to five thousand five hundred inhabitants, is situated at the confluence of the Hase and the Hunte. The town is well built, the houses are large, the streets are broad and straight. It is surrounded by two suburbs, and it appears from the census of 1823, that the number of houses was at that time equal to six hundred and fifty. Three churches, as many hospitals, a gymnasium that possesses no mean reputation, and a seminary that is set apart for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters, are the most useful institutions. The small harbour of Oldenburg communicates with the North Sea by means of the Hunte and the Weser. The inhabitants carry on a trade in sugar, tobacco, soap and leather. Oldenburg is the birthplace of Lubin, a writer of great learning, who died in 1821; he was the author of a Latin treatise on the nature and origin of evil, and also of very curious and erudite commentaries on Anacreon, Perseus, and Juvenal; these works were at one time much read, they are now only consulted by few scholars. The great duke has a castle at Oldenburg, but he resides generally at Rastede, a place at no great distance from the town. Oldenburg.

Delmenhorst on the Delme, is peopled by two thousand inhabitants; a fair is held in it every year, during which a great many horses and oxen are sold. *Wildeshausen*, a town that contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants, is chiefly remarkable on account of its leather works and cloth manufactories. *Saterland*, which ought not to be passed over in silence, is situated in the middle of a marshy district, and its inhabitants, originally Frieslanders, have retained the manners and customs of their ancestors. The people of both sexes, from the age of five to the most advanced period of life, employ their leisure hours in knitting stockings. Varel, which is situated at the mouth of the Jahde, contains a population of two thousand six hundred individuals; it is a place of considerable trade, and the entrance of vessels into its harbour is rendered easy by the tides. Other towns.

We have thus briefly enumerated the most important towns in the great dutchy of Oldenburg. It ought to be remarked, that many of the marshes have of late years been drained by government; sluices and canals have been constructed to serve as outlets for the waters. These operations, undertaken and continued at a great expense, must be one day attended with beneficial results.

It has been already stated that the duke of Oldenburg possesses two small principalities, those of Lubeck and Birkenfeld. The town of Lubeck, and the territory attached to it, shall be afterwards more fully mentioned; they form no part of the first principality, which ought, perhaps, to be called Eutin or Utina, from its capital, that is situated on a lake of the same name. Eutin is a small but well built town, of which the population was supposed to be equal to two thousand five hundred souls. It possesses a gymnasium and a large castle. The principality of Lubeck is peopled by twenty thousand inhabitants, who are almost all Lutherans; its surface is not less than twenty-six square leagues or a hundred and fifty-six English square miles. Principality of Lubeck.

A small territory, which formed at one time a part of the French department of the Sarre, and which has been since raised into a principality, contains 20,000 inhabitants, that are scattered over a surface of a hundred and fifty English square miles. Principality of Birkenfeld.

Birkenfeld, which is situated on the Nahe, is rather a burgh than a town; its population amounts to fourteen hundred individuals, and its trade consists chiefly in iron. Oberstein, another burgh of the same sort, but more interesting from the industry of its inhabitants, Towns—Birkenfeld.

is situated in a small valley on the Nahe. There are not fewer than twenty mills, in which different articles of furniture, jewels, and precious stones, such as agates, calcedony, cornelians, jaspers, and lapis lazuli, are cut and polished. Men, women and children are constantly employed in preparing and finishing the different articles, which are exported to most countries in Europe, for in no other place is that sort of work so well executed, or at so little expense. The annual exports, it is supposed, are sold for 12,500*l.*, and they consist mostly of ear-rings, snuff-boxes, seals, bracelets and necklaces.

The naturalist Faujas has given an account of the manner in which hard stones are worked in Oberstein.[a] A great part of the population are employed in hollowing and polishing agates. A cutting mill consists of a tree that serves as an axle for several mill-stones, which are moved by a current of water, by means of a large wheel and others of smaller dimensions. A workman, seated on a horizontal plank, holds in his hand a piece of wood, to which an agate is attached, and rubs it against a mill-stone that revolves rapidly, and is constantly moistened by a small stream of water. The mill-stones are made of very hard sandstone of a reddish colour; in some of them channels or furrows and different angles are cut, and the men use them with much skill in executing any delicate or complicated piece of work. Wheels and cylinders of soft wood are made to move by strong straps of leather, that are attached to the two extremities of the tree on which the mill-stones revolve. These wheels and cylinders are used in giving the last polish to the different works, and that part of the labour is generally committed to women. It is obvious, however, that any machinery made of soft wood must be wholly useless in polishing the hard agates that are fashioned by the mill-stones; it ought to be mentioned, therefore, that the wheels and cylinders are covered with a fine paste made of some hard substance reduced to powder.

The workmen at Oberstein refuse to give strangers any information concerning the nature of this substance, or the place from which they obtain it. If an opinion may be formed from its colour, it is probably an amalgam or composition. It is thus that they are enabled to give a fine lustre to their works, and to sell them at a moderate price. M. Faujas, after much trouble and fruitless research, discovered the place in which the powder was obtained. It is found, says that writer, on the hills in the neighbourhood, and is nothing more than a sort of argil formed from porphyry in a state of decomposition. It consists principally of feldspath that has undergone, by the action of water and the atmosphere, alterations analogous to those by which the same substance is changed into the white clay that is called kaolin, and used in the manufacture of porcelain. It may be difficult to conceive how the vases and snuff-boxes, made at Oberstein, can be hollowed on large mill-stones. But when these articles are made, cones of sandstone, of different diameters, are substituted for the small wooden wheels that have been already mentioned. On these cones, which turn with great rapidity, it is not difficult to hollow a large piece of agate.

Armed force. The military establishment in the great dutchy of Holstein-Oldenburg amounts to two thousand men; its revenue is not less than 1,500,000 florins, and its finances are in a state of prosperity, that may excite the admiration of greater nations. The national debt, which was equal in 1817 to 485,744 dollars, or 85,005*l.*, has been since liquidated by means of judicious retrenchments, and advances made by the great duke.

Hanover. The kingdom of Hanover, formerly an electorate, is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, on the east by Holstein,

[a] Voyage Geologique à Oberstein—Annales du Museum, tom. vi. p. 53, &c.

Mecklenburg and the Prussian province of Saxony, on the south by the dutchy of Brunswick and the great dutchy of the Rhine, and on the west by the Low countries. Its surface is about 1932 square leagues, or 11,592 English square miles. The number of inhabitants cannot be less than 1,463,700, so that the population for every square mile, is nearly equal to one hundred and twenty-seven individuals.

Ancient inhabitants.

Hanover is one of the northern states that was once inhabited by the Saxons, who invaded England. Formerly a rude and warlike people, they are now peaceably settled in the country which their ancestors conquered; formerly devoted to rapine or plunder, and fond of a wandering life, they are now civilized, beneficent, and attached to their country. They appear to have lost every trace of their ancient origin, except their bravery and love of liberty. Their ancestors worshipped sanguinary and revengeful gods, their descendants practise the virtues inculcated in a religion of mercy. The Hanoverians were part of the Cimbro-Saxon branch, which was divided into several nations and tribes. The *Longobardi* or *Vinuli* inhabited both banks of the Elbe; the *Chemi*, as has been already remarked in the account of Oldenburg, possessed the lands at the mouth of the Weser; the *Fusi* occupied the country which now forms the territory of Hildesheim; and the *Cherusci*, who mixed at a later period with the Franks, were settled in the Hartz forests.

Ancient divinities.

The names of some mountains, and of several places in the country, are connected with the different divinities that were adored by the early inhabitants. Sonnenberg signifies the mountain of the sun, and the termination *horn*, which occurs in several names, is probably connected with the moon, that was worshipped, and typified by the horns of a crescent. *Biel*[a] was the name which the northern nations gave to the god of vegetation, and to the special protector of the Hercynian forest. The same word is still applied to different places in Germany. The word *ostern*, which signifies easter, a derivative from *ost*, is believed by many Germans of the present day to have been the name of a planetary festival, which was abolished after the introduction of christianity. Antiquaries are too apt to draw incorrect inferences from a number of stones, fancifully arranged or grouped together on hills, plains and forests. If such a system were adopted, it might be easy to trace the druidical worship in almost every country on the earth; and, without doubt, similar monuments might be found on the top of Mount Brocken.

Electors of Hanover.

The electoral family of Hanover is sprung from the ancient house of Brunswick. Ernestus Augustus, the youngest son of George, duke of Brunswick, was the founder of the family. That prince, who was made bishop of Osnabruck in 1662, succeeded to the dukedom of Hanover, after the death of his brother, who was the titular duke of the principality. Ernestus soon became a great general, and rendered so important services to the empire that Leopold raised him to the rank of an elector, and made the dignity hereditary in his family. His son, George Lewis, was proclaimed king of England in 1712, after the death of queen Anne; and that prince, whose father had been bishop of Osnabruck, was a firm supporter of protestantism. Great Britain thus obtained possession of Hanover, to which it continued to add new states, until the year 1802; by this means it got a footing on the continent, and was enabled to take more or less interest in continental affairs, according to circumstances. The league that it formed against France, gave the last power a pretext for conquering Hanover, which, in conformity to a treaty concluded in 1806, belonged for some months to Prussia, and was afterwards divided by Napoleon between France and the kingdom of Westphalia, which he had lately founded. It was not until 1813 that Hanover

[a] Hennius.

was restored to England; the following year it was erected into a kingdom, and was afterwards enlarged by the addition of East-Friesland and other territories.

Soil. From the shores of the sea to the southern extremity of Hanover, the land rises gradually in the direction of the Hartz mountains; many ramifications that extend from them, are situated in the kingdom. The land near the sea, and particularly in the eastern districts, which are watered by the Lower Elbe and the Lower Weser, is chiefly formed by alluvial deposites, brought down by these two rivers. It is often exposed to inundations, the destructive effects of which can only be prevented by dikes and embankments. The great number of marshes in the same part of the country, proves sufficiently the recent formation of the land, or the comparatively short period since it emerged from the water. The same remark is applicable to the western districts that are watered by the Ems. These districts are not productive, but the most sterile lands are the heaths or downs of Lunenburgh and Verden, situated between the Elbe and the Weser, and the plains of Meppen on the right bank of the Ems. In these poor districts, so ill adapted for agriculture, the traveller passes through countries covered with sand, forests of fir trees, heaths and marshes. A portion of the marshy districts near the territory of Bremen has been cultivated, but much time and labour must be spent before any improvement can be discernible in the vast heaths of Lunenburgh, that occupy from east to west an extent of sixty miles, and not much less than the same distance from south to north, or from Cell to Harburgh. The land in the neighbourhood of Bentheim, consists mostly of immense heaths, covered in different places with marshes and stagnant water. Considered in a geological point of view, the countries that have been mentioned, belong to the most recent formation, to the one that has been called *ternary*.

Fossil wood. The sea near the town of Stade, not far from the mouth of the Elbe, carries along with it at every tide, the remains of trees, different from those which now grow on the land. Blumenbach considers them to be fossil; they are brown, black and almost always bituminous. They are real lignites, and their presence proves that the sea covers a more recent land than the chalk, of which the traces have been seen on the shores of the Baltic.

Hartz. The second, or calcareous formation, is observable towards the Hartz, and extends along a line drawn from west to east, from Osnabruck to Hanover. It rests on the chain of the Hartz, which rises like an island in the midst of the territory. The mountains that form the chain are mostly composed of granite, and they are more precipitous on the south than on the north. All of them are not situated in Hanover; it has been alraedy seen that part of them belong to Prussia, but as we have only described Mount Brocken in our account of the Prussian provinces, it is necessary to enter into some details concerning that mountainous and metallic region.

Etymology of its name. The Hartz form part of the country, which the ancients denominated the Hercynian forest, (*Sylva Hercynia.*) It has been observed by different writers, that the analogy between the Latin and German names proves that the former has been derived from the German word Hartzwald. The country, it cannot be denied, was, in ancient times, covered with immense forests of fir trees. But the German writers have proceeded a step further, they have endeavoured to discover the etymology of the word Hartz; some affirm that it comes from *hart*, the origin of which is unquestionably Germanic, and the signification accords sufficiently with the rugged appearance of these mountains, and perhaps with the harsh physiognomy of their inhabitants. Other writers have derived the word from Hertha, the name of an ancient divinity that was supposed to inhabit the woods and mountains. The last derivation is rendered probable, from

the circumstance, that a word analogous to hartz was applied by the Germans to denominate all the mountainous chains in their country, and it is thus easy to account for the immense extent, which the Romans assigned to the Hercynian forest. Led into error by a generic term applicable to many places, they believed in the existence of a country, covered with mountains and forests, that occupied the greater part of Germany.

Julius Cæsar affirms that the Hercynian forest is so broad that it requires nine days' march to cross it, and so long that no German can travel from one extremity to the other in sixty days.[p] It has also been supposed that the name of the Hartz, was derived from the fir trees, which, in ancient times, overtopped the peaked summits of these mountains, and this is perhaps the most probable etymology.[q] Hartz is at present the German word for rosin, and it is natural to suppose that the use which they made of that vegetable substance, and its value in exchange for other commodities, induced them to give its name to the mountains from which it was obtained in great abundance. The chain of the Hartz is about seventy-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Steep summits, valleys, woods and marshes form a natural labyrinth, from which it is almost impossible for a stranger to extricate himself without a guide.

Caverns.

The limestone rests on the granite rocks of this chain, and in it are observed several caverns, less remarkable for their numerous and intricate windings, than for the enormous quantity of fossil bones which are contained in them, so much so, that they may be considered immense natural charnel-houses, in which are deposited the remains of many animals, different from any at present existing on the surface of the earth. Such phenomena attest the important changes that have happened in our planet. The most remarkable of these caverns are those of Licorne and Baumann. The first is situated at the base of the castle of Schartzfels, and consists of five grottos that communicate with each other by numerous sinuations, which must be passed both in going down and in returning from the cave. The second, which is much larger, consists, likewise, of the same number of cavities placed on different levels. The height of the first above the second grotto, is equal to thirty feet. It is necessary, after having mounted and descended, to pass a rapid declivity that leads to a subterranean gallery, partly filled with water, and situated below the grottos. In that gallery, which is seldom visited, are contained many bones, belonging, for the most part, to tigers, hyenas and bears of much larger dimensions than any that can be seen at present.

Witches' Fountain.

Several streams which enlarge the Elbe and the Weser, take their rise from the Hartz mountains. The *Witches' Fountain* (*Hexen Brunnen*) is among the number of these springs; its name, as a traveller remarked, indicates certain superstitious practices of the ancient inhabitants in that country.[r] After Christianity was established by the sword of Charlemagne, priestesses visited the fountain, performed their rites at it, and the Christians confounding their ceremonies with the worship of demons, termed the spring by the name which it still retains. It is situated at the distance of twenty feet below the summit of Mount Brocken, and emits an abundant supply of fresh and limpid water.[s]

Mines.

The Hartz mountains have been long known on account of their mines; the silver veins are, for the most part, situated in the territory of Hanover; they are embedded in the fissures of a sandy rock, which is now generally known by the German name of *Grauwacke*. The remains of vegetables and marine animals are contained in the same rock. The other metals which are worked, are lead, iron, copper, zinc, and even gold; sulphur and arsenic are also obtained. Marble, slate, sharping stones, and several kinds of argil, are observed in different parts of the range.

[p] Cæsar's Commentaries, Book VI. [q] Strabo, Book VII. [r] M. A. B. Mangourit, Voyage en Hanovre. [s] Lasius.

There are, besides, many mineral springs, but those at Limmer and Pyrmont are the most frequented.

Miners. It has been remarked that there are few places in Europe, where the art of the miner is so well understood as in the Hartz mountains. The workmen employed in the mines, form a distinct population of 56,000 individuals, whose ancestors migrated from Franconia. The first strangers that settled on these mountains, were sent by Charlemagne; but during the eleventh century, a new colony was invited to work the mines at Rammelsberg, which were at that time discovered. Their descendants are easily recognised by their black uniforms and red feathers. They are arranged like soldiers into companies, and their commanders are engineers, whose rank corresponds with that of generals, colonels and lieutenants. The men are attached to the service, and the utmost harmony reigns amongst them. The most of them are fond of the chase, a favourite amusement of their ancestors; they are distinguished too by their love of music, and their partiality for the songs of their country. Their frank and rural hospitality may be considered another quality, common to them with their forefathers. Strangers seldom visit them, but those who do so are always made welcome.

Lakes. Few lakes are situated in the kingdom of Hanover; indeed, there are only three that are worthy of notice. The first is the *Steinhundermeen*, and the second, the *Dumersee;* the latter abounds in fish, and its surface is about three miles in breadth, and six in length. But the most remarkable of them all, is the lake of *Jordan* in East-Friesland; it extends a considerable distance under ground, and the land above it, says Stein, is sufficiently solid to support the weight of carriages.

Climate. The climate of Hanover is in most places mild; the natives boast of its salubrity, but it must be confessed that the humidity of the low and marshy grounds is unwholesome, and the temperature, in a great part of the country, extremely variable. The winters are severe, and the weather is sometimes cold in summer. The dews and vapours which rise from the ground in the same season, about sunrise and sunset, are often fatal to invalids. The north-west wind blows frequently during winter, the east wind in spring, and the south-west prevails in summer and partly in autumn. The influence of these winds, and the sudden changes of temperature, are very unwholesome.

Diseases. It need not excite surprise, after this account of the climate, that different maladies are not uncommon in Hanover. If the month of July be very warm, the inhabitants are exposed to epidemical diseases. But the most common diseases are nervous and intermittent fevers, phthisis, paralysis and apoplexy.

Products. The natural wealth of Hanover consists in its sea and river fishings, in the game that abound in its forests, fields and marshes, in the cattle that are fed on its pastures, in its vegetable productions, and lastly, in the mines that are contained in its mountains. Adhering to these divisions, according to which, few countries can be compared with Hanover, we shall endeavour to give an account of each of them.

Fish. Since the year 1792, the time that George the Third granted encouragement to the whale fisheries, many have set out every season to the shores of Greenland. But the fisheries on the coasts of Hanover, are very productive. The rivers and lakes are abundantly stocked with different kinds of fish, such as perch, barbel, carp, pike, trouts and eels of a very large size.

Forests. Planks and timber well adapted for the construction of small vessels, are obtained from the forests. Fire wood, it is true, is very dear, but as several coal mines are worked, that inconvenience is in a great measure obviated. Many decayed fir trees are observed in the woods; the cause of their decay has been attributed to the ravages of an

insect, which appears to be the same as the *Bostrichus typographus* of the naturalist Fabricius.[1] The fact, however, may be considered doubtful, for that insect has been seldom known to attack living trees. There are many very large oaks in the neighbourhood of Cell. Stein assures us that he has measured some, which were, near the ground, more than forty feet in circumference, and near the branches upwards of twenty-five.

The forests afford shelter for stags, roe-deer, wild boars, hares, and rabbits, but fortunately for the farmer, their number has much decreased within the last twenty years. The marshes abound with different water fowl, and many ortolans are killed in the neighbourhood of Osnabruck. It is principally in the Hartz range that the wolves are formidable from their number and size. The horned cattle are not large, but the oxen and sheep on the mountains, are said to be of an excellent kind. The Hanoverian horse is considered very valuable; whether it be owing to abundant pastures and the great quantity of oats that are cultivated, or whether the race be indigenous to the country, it is certain that strangers are often astonished at the strength and symmetry of the horses that are seen in the wagons of the peasantry. It is remarkable, however, that the Arab and southern breeds have been crossed with those of the north, and have never succeeded in Hanover. | Animals.

The wool in the country is, in general, coarse and of a bad quality, but it has been improved since the time that government encouraged the introduction of Spanish sheep. The inhabitants in some of the districts gain a considerable profit by the sale of their poultry; and the rearing of bees is found to be a lucrative employment. In spring, when the meadows are enamelled with flowers, the peasants, who, in that season, have no other occupation, leave their villages, collect these valuable insects, and fill, perhaps, 60,000 hives.

The principal wealth of Hanover consists in the produce of the mines; not less than 75,000 hundred weight of iron is obtained every year, 5000 of lead, 7000 of copper, and 40,000 marks of silver. The working of the copper mines furnishes, besides, 2000 hundred weight of sulphate of copper, or vitriol. | Mines.

Agriculture is not in an advanced state in the kingdom. The waste lands are very extensive, and no attempts to drain any part of the marshes have originated from government. It is admitted, that agricultural societies, which are now established in large towns, have proposed some improvements; but it is difficult to determine how much time may be consumed before such societies can enlighten the mass of proprietors and peasants, adverse to innovation, and guided by routine. The agricultural products are hay, oats, the ordinary kinds of grain, maize, beans, potatoes, and lastly, hemp and lint. | Agriculture.

The fruits in Hanover, with the exception of the apple, are neither so large, so good, nor so abundant as those in France. The vine is only cultivated in the gardens; the grapes are principally consumed by the wealthy; little or no wine is made from it, and it does not often arrive at perfect maturity.

The manufactures of the kingdom are not of the best quality. The natives are more disposed to seek employment in a foreign country than to cultivate the land, or gain a livelihood in their own. Stein supposes that the number of individuals, who migrate every year to Holland, cannot be less than 16,000. The Hanoverians have succeeded, however, in the manufacture of tobacco, soap, different woollen stuffs, and particularly in the art of working iron and copper. A great many hands are occupied in spinning thread, and weaving linen. The annual produce of the manufactories in the territories of Lunenburgh, Bremen, Osnabruck, | Industry.

[1] Mangourit, Voyage en Hanovre.

Hoya and Diepholtz has been said to amount to 5,500,000 florins. People of both sexes are employed in spinning, and there are village girls in the district of Cell, who can spin in the space of nineteen hours, more than seventy-eight skeins of thread. But the linen manufactured in Hanover, is much inferior to that of Prussia and Friesland. There are many tan works in the country, yet the leather is not considered good. Jewels, lace, and different articles of luxury are better made in Hanover than in many European countries.

The carriage of exports and imports has been facilitated by excellent roads, and by steam-boats that are every day ascending or descending the Elbe, the Weser, the Ems, and the Aller. The transit trade with the north of Germany has risen into considerable importance. Among the large commercial towns, ought to be mentioned Munden, where three hundred and seventy vessels arrive annually by the Weser, a hundred and ten by the Werra, and a hundred and thirty by the Fulda. Seven hundred and fifty wagons pass every year along the roads that lead to the south-east of Germany, and a hundred and thirty-five along the roads that communicate with the south-west of the same country. Some writers have calculated that the expense of exportation amounts annually to 450,000 dollars, or nearly 67,000*l.*

Population. According to Hassel the population was equal in 1822, to 1,463,700 individuals; it was distributed in seventy towns, a hundred and seventeen burghs, eleven hundred and five villages or parishes, four thousand and twenty-four hamlets, and twelve hundred and eighty manors and farms. The surface of the country is not less than 1946 French square leagues, or 11,676 English square miles. There were more, therefore, than one hundred and twenty-six inhabitants for every English square mile.

Political divisions. Previously to the year 1823, the kingdom was divided into eleven provinces, but as these provinces were very unequally circumscribed, the country was divided in the same year into seven governments, which may be shortly mentioned.*

Governments. The government of Hanover is made up of the ancient principality of Kalenberg, and the counties of Hoya and Diepholtz. It contains thirty-two bailiwicks and nine independent tribunals.

The government of Hildesheim, formed by the principality of the same name, those of Gottingen and Grubenhagen, and the county of Hohnstein, contains thirty-seven bailiwicks and twenty-five tribunals.

The government of Lunenburgh comprehends the principality of the same name. There are thirty-seven bailiwicks and eight independent tribunals.

The government of Stade is composed of the dutchies of Bremen, Verden, and the county of Hodeln. It is divided into sixteen bailiwicks and twenty-eight tribunals.

The government of Osnabruck comprehends, in addition to that principality, the counties of Lingen and Bentheim, and the circles of Meppen and Emsbuhren. The number of bailiwicks is not more than nine.

The government of Aurich is made up of the ancient province of East Friesland; it possesses twelve bailiwicks, and five independent courts.

Lastly, the high council of the mines at Klausthal, holds the rank of a government, and extends its jurisdiction over the Upper Hartz (Oberhartz.) This concession was made to it on account of the privileges which the miners have enjoyed for ages. It possesses only one bailiwick.

Religion. According to the calculation of Hassel, the number of Jews in Hanover amounts to six thousand seven hundred, and according to Stein, to fifteen thousand, but the last number seems to be too great. It appears from the most authentic sources of information, which

* See *Neue* Allgm., Geog. und Statist. Ephemerid. xiii. vol. first sheet, 1824.

we have examined, that the number of Lutherans, or of those who adhere to the Augsburg Confession, may amount to eleven hundred thousand, the reformed or Calvinists to a hundred and twenty thousand, the Catholics to two hundred and thirty thousand, the number of Jews to thirteen thousand, and of Mennonites to five hundred.

The Lutherans have their pastors, superintendents, and general superintendents, who are subject to the consistories of Hanover, Osnabruck, Aurich, Hildesheim, Stade and Ottendorf. The Calvinists have their ministers and consistories; the Catholics, their priests and bishops, under the direction of the archbishops of Osnabruck and Hildesheim. The ancient chapters have been restored in the government of Hanover; and all the monasteries and church lands, which were not sold during the foreign domination, are concentrated in the government of Hildesheim. A committee of the chapters has been instituted, whose office it is to collect the revenue of these lands, and to purchase such as were sold or alienated during the Westphalian government. The rental of these properties is added to a general fund, out of which certain pensions are paid, besides the expenses of the chapter, and whatever is connected with the catholic worship. The appointment of a committee to manage this fund was ratified by government in 1816, and since that period it has raised a loan on the security of the lands that are to be redeemed. But the proprietors, who are unwilling to part with their estates, may retain them by paying a sum that must be laid out in the endowment of universities, and other scientific institutions in the kingdom.

Property of the church.

Hanover is an hereditary kingdom, independent of the crown of England. It is ruled by a governor general, a prince of the blood, who on any important affair takes the advice of the king at London, where his majesty may be assisted by a council of Hanoverians. But according to the constitution, if the crown of England passes to a female, that of Hanover belongs to the nearest male relative of the sovereign. The government of the kingdom is partly feudal and partly representative. The legislative department is committed to two chambers that assemble annually. But, according to a decree passed in 1814, several customs relative to feudal rights, which were abolished by the French government, have been renewed. The ancient laws and customs of the country, are also put into force, until a new code, which is at present forming, has been arranged. Justice is administered in the bailiwicks, the different tribunals, a court of chancery, and a supreme court.

Government.

The Hanoverian army consists in time of peace of twelve thousand men, and the *landwehr* or militia of eighteen thousand. It appears from a law passed in 1817, that every individual without distinction of rank must enter the militia at the age of nineteen. An exception has been made in favour of clergymen, infirm persons, professors, military men who have served during six years, and only sons, who have lost a brother on the field of battle. The privilege of finding substitutes is only granted to students of divinity. The landwehr is reviewed every year, and detachments are exercised every Sunday, except in the time of harvest. The duties of a horse police are performed by the royal corps of provincial dragoons.

Standing Army.

Having entered into some details concerning the productions, population, government and military establishment of Hanover, we shall endeavour to describe its principal towns. Hanover, or the capital, is situated on a sandy plain at the confluence of two small rivers, the Leine and the Ihme; the first is navigable, and Hanover is thus divided into two parts, the Old and the New Town. The most of the houses are built of brick, and the new streets are spacious and regular. The Old Town was only a fortress in the year 1130, but in 1178 it obtained the rank and privileges of a city. The New Town contains about three hundred

Towns. Hanover.

and fifty houses, and a suburbs which consists of nearly five hundred. The population amounts to twenty-four thousand inhabitants. The elevation of the soil is not less than a hundred and twenty feet above the level of the sea. The neighbourhood of Hanover is adorned by fruitful meadows, picturesque scenery, and the Linden, a fine public walk. The town at a distance resembles a large garden, in which houses and steeples, covered with plates of copper, are interspersed. The illusion is increased by the course of the Leine, that winds round the town. On approaching the city, it may be seen that the streets and houses are agreeably shaded with rows of poplar and lime trees. A great degree of activity is observable on the streets, and some of the buildings are remarkable for the elegance of their architecture, which contrasts well with the German and Gothic style of several ancient habitations.

Public Buildings. The finest public buildings are the palaces of the king and the viceroy, the arsenal, and the opera. The temple of honour, or a monument erected to Leibnitz, is no unworthy tribute to the memory of that great man. A Jewish synagogue, a French church, and four others, may be mentioned among the different places of worship.

Different establishments. Students, and all those who devote their time to literature or science, may find Hanover no disagreeable residence. The society of natural history is entitled to celebrity from its labours and researches. The school of artillery and fortification is conducted on an excellent plan. The institutions by which the different branches of knowledge are diffused, are creditable to the authorities. The Lutheran gymnasium, the Jewish seminary, and many other schools, are not the only proofs which government has given of its solicitude for the happiness of the people. A normal school, or a seminary for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters, may be considered a model of its kind. Both sexes are taught the useful branches of education, as well as the more superficial accomplishments. Thus, the instruction of a girl is not confined to ethics, religion, music, and drawing, but extends to whatever is likely to be of use to her as the mother of a family. Boys are taught arithmetic, book-keeping, to draw plans, and other branches of education, which on many occasions may be very useful. Their time is not wasted in learning what the world and its distractions are likely to make them soon forget; in France they are kept eight years at Greek and Latin, in Hanover, English, and French; geometry and natural philosophy are essential parts of education, Hebrew and archaiology are considered indispensable in the schools of divinity. The Georgian institution, in which nobles are educated, and those only who are to enter the army, has been conducted on such a plan as to qualify the pupils for holding civil as well as military employments. It might take up too much time to give an account of the different scientific collections in the town, from the museum of natural history, the antiquities and medals, in the palace of the king, to the public library, which consists of 200,000 volumes.

The useful arts are not in a very advanced state, but the commerce and industry of the town have rapidly increased since the peace, and it carries on, at present, a considerable trade with Bremen and Hamburg. We might mention its sugar works, distilleries, tobacco mills, porcelain and linen manufactories, and particularly its embroidery, which is sold for a high price in Germany.

Vicinity. The Germans in the neighbourhood of Hanover speak with admiration of the royal palace of Hernhausen, Montbrilliant, the gardens of Walmoden, and other country seats belonging to different individuals. But these places, at which a stranger may look for a few minutes, hardly merit any description. Besides, caprice or bad taste seems to have prevailed so much in the different arrangements and ornaments, that few strangers admire them. One may wonder at the great size of the

fountain at Hernhausen, which rises nearly to the same height as that at St. Cloud, but emits a much greater body of water. In majesty and grandeur the building is infinitely surpassed by Versailles. Little can be said of the regular and gloomy hedge rows in the different gardens, if it be not that they serve to remind us how much the uniformity of art is inferior to the variety of nature. It ought to be mentioned that the town of Hanover claims the honour of having given birth to Herschel.

On the banks of the Leine, and above its junction with the Ihme, is situated Göttingen, one of the most celebrated collegiate towns in Germany. Its population amounts to 11,000 souls, and its trade is chiefly confined to leather and woollen stuffs. But its fame depends wholly on its university, which was founded in 1734 by George the Second. Public instruction is carried to a great degree of perfection; the professors, of whom the number is not less than forty-two, are distinguished by their zeal and diligence; they are selected from the most eminent men throughout Germany. Lectures are delivered on all the sciences and varied departments of literature; nearly sixteen hundred students matriculate every year, and in order to form good teachers or tutors for the students, the senatus academicus has under its direction a normal school, which is called the *Philological Seminary*. It need not, therefore, excite surprise if many distinguished men have been educated at this university. Much has been done to facilitate the means of acquiring knowledge. A library consisting of more than 400,000 volumes, formed from the collection of Leibnitz, who left there his numerous manuscripts, and which has been every year enriched by the best works on the sciences and arts, a fine collection of paintings, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an observatory rich in valuable astronomical instruments, and, lastly, a royal academy of sciences, of which the corresponding members are the most celebrated men in Europe, are so many incentives and encouragements to the students. There is also an excellent mercantile school at Göttingen. University.

The town of Münden is situated on a pleasant valley at the confluence of the Weira and Fulda, which by their junction form the Weser. It is peopled by five thousand inhabitants, who derive considerable wealth from the produce of their breweries, tan works, cloth, tobacco, and porcelain manufactories. Its trade is rendered very active by the navigation of the river. Munden.

Klausthal, in the Upper Hartz, may be said to be the most important town in that mountainous district. It possesses a mint, its population exceeds 8000 inhabitants, and its soil is about 1950 feet above the level of the sea. The burgh of Hertzberg is the only place in the kingdom where arms are manufactured.

Goslar, which is situated in the same country, and to the north of Hertzberg, was formerly a free and imperial town. It is built on the banks of the Gose; hence the origin of its name; and the same river, at no great distance from its walls, throws itself into the Ocker. According to Dresser, it was founded by Henry the Fowler, and fortified, for the first time, in the year 1201.[v] It is generally believed, that gunpowder was invented in the town by the monk Berthold Schwartz. Peopled at present by 5700 inhabitants, it possesses large breweries, vitriol works, and foundries. Part of the population are employed at these works, and at the slate quarries in the neighbourhood. Goslar.

The ancient town of Hildesheim is situated on the northern declivities of the Hartz, and in a sloping plain on the banks of the Innerste. It was an important town when Charlemagne introduced Christianity into these countries, and stained the gospel with the blood of Hildesheim.

[v] Isagoge historica per millenarios distributa, et ad annum usque nonagesinum primum, supra mille quinginta deducta.

the Saxons, whom he massacred for the glory of a religion that inculcates charity and brotherly love. It contains, at present, 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are engaged in trade and in manufacturing cloth. It possesses twenty churches, twelve of which belong to the Catholics, and eight to the Lutherans of the Augsburg Confession. The cathedral is the most remarkable of these buildings, it is decorated with fine pictures, and a monument is observed in it, not unworthy the attention of antiquaries; we mean the pillar on which was placed the figure of Irmensul or Hirmensul, a Saxon divinity, that is by some confounded with Hermes, and supposed by others to be the same as Mars. It was held in great veneration by the people, but when Charlemagne made himself master of Herseburg in 772, he put the inhabitants to death, sacrificed the priests on the fragments of the broken statue, and buried the pillar near the banks of the Weser. It was removed by Lewis the Debonair to the church at Hildesheim, and a large chandelier was placed on the summit; at present, however, as if to recall its first destination, it serves as a pedestal for a statue of the virgin.

Cell, or Zell. | Cell, or Zell, stands in a sandy plain, at the confluence of the Fuse and the Aller; it is a town of 8400 souls, and the supreme court in the kingdom of Hanover is held there. It is adorned by several fine streets and squares, a large hospital, and a castle surrounded with walls and ditches. But not the least ornament of the town, is the monument erected to the memory of Catherine Matilda, queen of Denmark, and sister of George the Third. There are several manufactories in Cell, the carrying trade of the town has been improved, and a great many boats ply on the Aller.

Lunenburgh. | Lunenburgh, an important town from its population, which amounts to 10,500 inhabitants, and from its being the capital of a government, is situated on the Ilmenau, a feeder of the Elbe. The monastery of St. Michael, the townhouse and the castle are nowise remarkable on account of their architecture. A Latin seminary, and an academy for the education of nobles, are the only schools founded by government. Extensive quarries of limestone, and salt pits, are worked in the vicinity, and an immense number of bees are reared in the district. The town is a place of trade, but the principal exports are honey, wax, lime, and salt.

Stade. | Stade, the metropolis of a government, is peopled by 6000 inhabitants, and has its gymnasium, orphan hospital, merchants' hall, and several stocking and lace manufactories.

Emden. | Emden, the most commercial town in the kingdom, is situated on the right bank of the Ems, at its embouchure. The bay of Dollart renders its port of great consequence; many vessels are built every year in its dock-yards, and most of them are sent to the whale and herring fisheries. The town carries on, besides, a trade in manufactured goods, such as tobacco, stockings and thread; its population amounts to more than twelve thousand souls.

Islands. | Our description of Hanover would be imperfect, were we not to give an account of some of the islands on the coast, between the mouth of the Elbe and the Ems. Their names are *Wanger-Oog*, *Spieker-Oog*, *Langer-Oog*, *Baltrum*, *Norderney*, *Juist*, and *Borkum*. Other islands are situated on the west of the mouth of the Ems, but these belong to the kingdom of the Netherlands. Encroachments have been made by the sea, during six hundred years, on the coasts of Hanover, as well as on those of Holland; traces of these encroachments are, in some respects, marked by the gradual enlargement of certain gulfs, particularly by that of Dollart, which was enlarged by an accession of water, from the year 1477 to 1539, and finally obstructed by dikes and embankments. Such phenomena appear to prove that these islands formed, at one time, a part

of the continent. Besides, that supposition is corroborated by a tradition, common in the country; for it is generally believed that several villages built on coasts, which are at present destroyed, were buried under the waters. The same changes may probably happen in the course of time, in the islands that have been mentioned; at all events, it is thought that the water has been gaining on them. Thus the opinion entertained by geologists, that the ocean has, at several times, invaded and abandoned the ancient continents, of which the ternary mountains exhibit the remains, is confirmed in this small portion of Europe. It cannot be doubted, that these sandy islands, threatened with future destruction, must have been formed in the depths of the ocean, and, although covered with vegetation, and rendered habitable since that period, it is easy to observe the remains of terrestrial or fresh water mollusca; the sea which covers them, afterwards depositing the remains of salt water, or marine mollusca. Future observers may thus be enabled to trace the successions of marine and fresh water deposites, which are so often seen on lands that formed part of a former world. The islands consist of different downs that rise to twenty, and in some places to fifty feet. To render the sandy land, by which they are formed, more consistent, it has been thought right to naturalize different plants that grow easily on sand, as the *Elymus arenarius* and *Arundo arenaria*, (Linn.) The care of putting this wise plan into execution, for its efficiency has been acknowledged in similar situations, is committed to the magistrates, clergymen, and schoolmasters. Borkum differs, however, from the other islands, inasmuch as in several parts of it, the land is rich and well adapted for agriculture. The spaces between them and the continent are so shallow, that they are almost dry at low tide. They are all inhabited, and those who live on them, rear cattle, and subsist principally by fishing and hunting.

Osnabruck.

German antiquaries entertain different opinions, both concerning the origin of this town, and the etymology of its name. It is certain that it was a place of some consequence in the time of Charlemagne. As to its etymology, some maintain that it was derived from Osenbrück (bridge on the Osen,) and others from Ochsenbrück (bridge for oxen.) The Hase, however, not the Osen, as might be naturally inferred from the first derivation, is the small river which traverses the town. Osnabruck, now peopled by 10,000 inhabitants, was made the metropolis of a diocese by Charlemagne. It was in the same town that the celebrated treaty of Westphalia was signed in 1648 by the Swedish plenipotentiaries and the emperor. The portraits of the ambassadors are preserved in the townhouse. Notwithstanding the preponderance of the bishop, who was sovereign in the town, Osnabruck was one of the first places that embraced the reformation of Luther. There are at present two bishops of Osnabruck, a Catholic, and an Anglican; the latter is generally a prince of the reigning family in England. The town was formerly fortified, as the remains of some ramparts indicate. It is, however, with the exception of a few streets, ill-built; perhaps the finest street of any, is the one that leads to the castle, a large edifice, surrounded by a garden, and adorned with fountains. It is unnecessary to mention the silver coffins in which are deposited the remains of Saint Crispin and Saint Crispinian, they may be seen in the Cathedral; but it may be remarked that there are several hospitals, a college, different public walks, and that the inhabitants carry on an extensive trade in linen.

Finances.

We shall conclude our account of Hanover by giving a short notice concerning the state of its finances. Hassel informs us, that the revenue in 1821 amounted to the sum of 11,700,000 florins, and the expenditure to 4,665,000. But the public debt is not less than 30,000,000 of florins, the interest of which at four per cent. is equal to 1,200,000. It may, therefore, be easily admitted, that if government is desirous of paying off the debt, or improving the country, the sum in the treasury cannot

be very considerable. It has been affirmed that the excess above the expenditure is sent to England, but it is more probable that all the revenue is expended in the country.

BOOK CXX.

EUROPE.

Germany—Fourth Section—Prussian Provinces of the Lower Rhine—Principality of Neuchatel—Reflections on the State of Prussia.

Countries, which at no former period belonged to Prussia, were added to that kingdom by the last treaties; and whilst it was the professed object of these treaties to restore the ancient balance of Europe, a prince was placed on the throne of his fathers, but most inconsistently with that great and salutary principle, a town founded by Lewis the Fourteenth was added to his dominions. The kingdom of Prussia, now more flourishing than ever, became on a sudden contiguous to humbled and degraded France. It seemed as if the high contracting powers were not so eager to bring back Europe to its ancient state, as to punish France for having ventured under a conquering chief to raise empires, found kingdoms, and dictate laws to sovereigns. We refrain from indulging in the political reflections which the present state of European geography is too apt to excite. But it is necessary to examine the new possessions of Prussia, and to calculate the advantages and disadvantages that are likely to result from them.

The provinces we are about to describe, consist of a country which the Rhine traverses from south-east to north-west; its extent, from north to south, is about two hundred miles, and the mean breadth, from east to west, nearly eighty; its total superficies is not less than 13,566 English square miles, and its population is believed to be equal to 3,095,000 individuals; now that number, if the inhabitants be supposed to be equally distributed in the country, gives upwards of 228 persons for every square mile, a result from which some notion may be inferred of the wealth and fruitfulness of these provinces. To these possessions must be added the principality of Neuchatel, of which the surface is not less than 234 English square miles, and the population amounts to 51,500 inhabitants. All these dependencies of the Prussian monarchy, equal in superficial extent to 13,800 English square miles, are peopled by 3,146,500 individuals. The route which we mean to follow in our description of them, may be traced from north to south, because it is towards the north that they are least remote from Prussia Proper.

Province of Westphalia.

The province of Westphalia comprehends the principalities of Munster, Minden, and Paderborn, the territories of the Mark, Hohenlimburgh, Ravensberg, Pecklenburgh, and Lingen, which, as well as the extensive districts attached to them, are so many possessions that Prussia has lately recovered. The same province is limited on the west and the north by the Netherlands and Hanover, on the east by Hesse, the principality of Waldeck, and the great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, on the south by the province of Cleves and Berg.

Ancient Inhabitants.

The country was in ancient times peopled by the *Bructeri*, *Marsi* and *Sicambri*, all branches of the Franco-Saxon stock. It appears from the statements of Tacitus and Strabo, that the Bructeri inhabited the lands between the Ems, the Lippe and the Rhine, while the Marsi occupied the present territory of Munster, and the Sicambri pos-

sessed the lands on the left bank of the Lippe.[7] Of all these people, the Bructeri were the most powerful; they were divided into two branches, the Great and Little Bructeri.[8]

All the eastern and southern part of the province is covered with mountains, which form two distinct chains. The Ebbe mountains that extend from east to west, are the natural limits on the south. To these heights other mountains are attached, the Rothhaar, and the Egge, which extend, from south-west to north-east, to the distance of eighty miles. Several rivers descend from the chain, such as the Lenne and the Ruhr, that unite and throw themselves into the Rhine; the Lippe, that conveys its waters to the same river; and, lastly, the Ems, which, although of secondary importance, cannot be passed over in silence. | Soil.

According to the observations of M. Omalius d'Halloy, the neighbourhood of Minden, like the calcareous land of Jura, belongs to the second formation. The country of Munster, and a great part of the land watered by the Ems and the Lippe, are formed by deposites similar to those in the vicinity of Paris. A secondary calcareous belt, of a formation analogous to chalk, extends between the Lippe and the Ems, over all the breadth of the province; lastly, the Ebbe, Rothhaar and Egge mountains make up a vast district, in which are observed granite, as well as other rocks of a date anterior to the formation of organized matter, and also several very ancient deposites containing organic remains. | Geology of the country.

But if these different formations be examined more minutely, and additional light has been obtained by the scientific researches of M. Buch, it may be seen that a great part of the country is valuable from its mineral productions. Thus between the Lippe and the Ruhr, the calcareous belt, which has been already mentioned, consists chiefly of compact limestone, near which other substances are found in abundance. The limestone rests on a vast deposite of coal, that commences near Essen and Mulhein in the province of Juliers, Cleves and Berg, and terminates at the base of the Rothhaar mountains, covering an extent of more than thirty miles in length. To the south of the coal, and in the granite lands, are observed strata of primitive limestone, well adapted for different purposes in the arts, and also other calcareous deposites containing organic remains, and affording excellent lime. Enough has been stated to show that the mineral riches in the province of Westphalia, are by no means unimportant; we shall now give some account of its principal towns, and of whatever is most worthy of notice in their vicinity. | Mineral productions.

The province is divided into three governments, of which the chief towns are Minden, Munster, and Arnsberg. Minden, a fortified town, is watered by the Weser; it is important on account of its commerce; it carries on an extensive trade in wax, soap, tobacco, linen, and woollen stuffs, and it is supposed that the produce of its sugar works is worth annually about 25,000*l.* It is peopled by more than eight thousand inhabitants, and situated in a pleasant country; a bridge, six hundred feet in breadth, and twenty-four in length, has been built on the river, which flows past its walls. There are three Catholic churches, two Lutheran and one Calvinist; the Catholic cathedral is more admired than any church in the town. Among the different institutions are a gymnasium, a normal school, an orphan hospital, and a Bible society. The salt springs of Frederick William, not far from Eidinghausen, are situated in the neighbourhood, and yield annually 1,383,065 of coarse salt, and 47,134 of a finer quality. The domain of Boehlhorst, from which an immense quantity of coal has been obtained, lies near Minden; and, lastly, in the vicinity of the same place, is situated the small town of Enger, in the church of which | Minden.

[7] See Strabo, Book VII. chapter ii. Tacitus, Ann. Book I. chapter lx. Moribus Germanorum, 33. [8] See the learned work entitled *Germanien und seine bewohner*, by A. B. Wilhelm.

may be seen the monument that was erected in the year 1377 by the emperor Charles the IV. to the memory of Wittikind the Great.

Herford. | Herford or Herforden is built on a low and marshy plain in the direction of Paderborn. It is a town of 6000 inhabitants, watered by the Werra and the Aa, and encompassed by old ramparts, now changed into gardens and public walks. There are seven churches in the town, a gymnasium, several spinning mills, and different manufactories. Bielefeld, which is sheltered by a hill, contains the same number of inhabitants as Herford, two Lutheran, a Calvinist, and a Catholic church, a synagogue, an orphan hospital, and a gymnasium. The linen that is exported annually, has been said to be worth 500,000 dollars. A great many of those tobacco pipes known in commerce by the name of *ecume de mer*, and made of carbonated magnesia, are sold in the town.

Paderborn. | Paderborn is equal in population to both the two last towns; it is the metropolis of an archiepiscopal see, and the supreme court is held in it. It possesses a gymnasium and an ecclesiastical seminary. The principal source of the river Pader rises within its walls, and in the neighbourhood of the cathedral. At no great distance from the town, near the forest of Teutoburgh, is situated the field of battle, where Arminius or Herman defeated the legions of Varus about the tenth year of the Christian era. *Roemerfeld* (field of the Romans,) the name of the hamlet, serves still to transmit the memory of the event. The rivulet called Bullerborn, flows near the village of Altenbecken; it issues with a hoarse sounding noise from a mountain, and disappears shortly afterwards under ground. The ore obtained from Mount Reh, is used in the iron works near the rivulet. The small town of Driburgh is situated at four leagues to the east of Paderborn, and on the eastern declivity of Mount Egge; it has been much frequented on account of its baths and mineral springs. At a short distance from it are seen the ruins of the castle of Iburg, which was destroyed by Charlemagne.

Munster. | Munster, the metropolis of a government, the capital of a province, and a seat of a supreme court of justice, was formerly an important fortress. It is said that it was founded by Charlemagne, who, to bring about the conversion of Saxons that chose rather to die than become Christians, built in that situation a monastery, and the Latin word *monasterium* appears to have been the origin of its German name. But it is the opinion of others, that the town was not founded before the eleventh century, and that it was originally called *Mimigardevordia*. If it be true that it was originally a convent erected in order to extend and diffuse Christianity, it is certain that it has expressed more than once its decided opposition to the temporal power of its sovereign bishop. The famous Bocoldus, surnamed John of Leyden, made himself master of the town in the sixteenth century. After the punishment of that fanatic, the townsmen wished to become free, but were compelled to submit to the authority of their bishop, and a fortress was erected to keep them in subjection. Munster is pleasantly situated on the Aa, which throws itself a short way below it into the Ems. A canal of the same name renders its commerce very active, and its population is considerable; Hassel supposes it nearly equal to 18,000 inhabitants, almost all of them are Catholics. It is at present the residence of an archbishop, and his chapter consists of forty canons. The town is well built, it contains ten churches; on the turrets of the church of St. Lambert are still seen the three iron cages in which John of Leyden and his two accomplices were confined. The conditions relative to the treaty of Westphalia were signed in the townhouse in the year 1648. The ramparts have been changed into agreeable walks. It possesses a university, that is attended by four hundred students, more than a hundred of whom are foreigners. The other establishments, connected with the instruction and amusement of its inhabitants, are, a bota-

nical garden, an academy of painting, an anatomical theatre, a veterinary school, a German theatre, and two casinos.

At ten leagues from Munster is the small town of Borken, which belonged to the prince of Salm-Salm, who changed his residence to Bocholt, and ceded the town in 1816 for an annual revenue of 22,000 florins. The two last towns are peopled by two or three thousand inhabitants, but there are other places which may be mentioned in the same government. Warendorf contains a gymnasium and 4000 inhabitants. Koerfeld, situated between two hills, is the residence of prince Salm-Horstman; the population amounts to 4500 individuals. Steinfurt, which belongs to the prince of Bentheim-Steinfurt, is watered by the Aa, and contains 2000 inhabitants; strangers resort to its gymnasium. All these towns carry on a trade in linen and other manufactures. | Borken.

Arnsberg or Arensberg, the capital of a government, is a small town containing hardly 3000 souls. Built on a hill, and almost wholly encompassed by the Ruhr, its situation is mountainous and romantic. The river water is not of a good quality for domestic purposes; a better kind may be obtained, but not always in sufficient quantity for the wants of the inhabitants. Among the useful institutions are an agricultural society and a gymnasium. The industry of the people has been long confined to the distillation of spirits, and to a trade in potashes, of which the annual profits are said to amount to 6250*l.* | Arnsberg.

Soest is a place of much greater importance than Arnsberg, for it contains more than double the number of inhabitants. It has an imposing appearance at a distance, from its ancient ramparts and numerous turrets. The Catholic and Protestant clergymen live together on the most friendly terms; their example seems to prove the possibility of uniting the different Christian sects. Sermons are preached in the cathedral on one Sunday by Protestants, on the other by Catholics. It is not less true than remarkable, that in this town at least, difference of opinion on religious subjects, does not give rise to jealousy, animosity and the bad passions so common to churchmen. There are in Soest two convents, seven Lutheran churches, a Lutheran college, and a hospital for the poor and orphans. Its commerce consists principally in cloth, leather, and in the produce of the country in the neighbourhood. | Soest.

Hamm, situated at the confluence of the Asse and the Lippe, was surrounded with ramparts, most of which are now changed into public walks; it possesses a Catholic, a Lutheran, and Calvinistic church; its other institutions are an agricultural society, one of political and rural economy, and a gymnasium in which youth are well educated. The industry of the town has been chiefly directed to manufactories, bleaching cloth and dressing leather. A great quantity of bacon is every year exported from it, principally to Holland. The population amounts to five thousand inhabitants. Unna carries on a trade in porcelain, beer and spirits; and it derives a great revenue from the salt springs of Brockhausen in the vicinity. The population is not less than 3500 souls, there are three churches and a gymnasium. | Hamm.

Dortmund, formerly a free and fortified town, contains only at present 4500 inhabitants. A supreme council of the mines meet there; many pupils attend its gymnasium; there are not fewer than six churches, four belong to the Lutherans, one to the Catholics, and another to the Calvinists. The pins and different articles of cutlery that are made in the town, its breweries, spirit and vinegar distilleries, and lastly, its hundred and fifty looms, are said to return considerable profits. It may be remarked indeed that there are few towns or even villages in this government, of which the inhabitants are not engaged in some branch of industry. Iron and other metals are worked in the different places that have been now described. Hagen may be mentioned not only for its cloth and | Dortmund.

paper manufactories, but also on account of its iron works, from which are exported pitchforks, scythes, sickles and different implements of husbandry to the amount of £8400, a sum not nearly so great as that obtained for its files, saws, knives, fire-irons, furnaces, anvils and coffee-mills. The small town of Schwelm, in which the number of inhabitants amounts to 2800 souls, a population not much greater than the preceding, carries on the same sort of trade, and possesses in addition, linen manufactories, soap works, breweries and distilleries. Altêna contains about 3400 individuals; there are not fewer than 104 mills in which iron wire is drawn; five hundred workmen are employed in making needles, pins and thimbles. The sum obtained for the articles exported, may perhaps exceed £100,000. Iserlohn is situated on a mountainous and unfruitful district, but its wealth depends on the industry of its inhabitants; its population has never been supposed greater than 5400 souls, and the number of Lutherans may perhaps be equal to that of the Catholics. It appears from a statistical account, that there are fifty-one mills for making that sort of iron wire, used in the machines for carding cloth, and more than a hundred workmen are employed in making coffee-mills. It exports more than £2200 in pins, and about £9000 in copper garnishings for snuff-boxes, canes and other articles of a like description. Its metal buttons, buckles and chains, are much prized; the copper, of which these different articles are made, is obtained from four foundries in the neighbourhood. Besides what has been already enumerated, the paper, velvet and silk manufactories of the same place might be mentioned. All these articles keep up the commerce of sixty mercantile houses, that correspond with France, Italy and different countries in the north.

Other Towns. The small town of Limburg or Hohen-Limburg, which is situated in the county of Bentheim-Tecklemburg, carries on the same sort of trade; nails form part of its exports. Olpe on the Bigge contains only 1600 inhabitants, but it possesses fifty forges for iron bars, about thirty for steel, fifteen white-iron manufactories, and two copper foundries, in both of which, planchets for coining money are made, and in some years more than 3000 hundred weight of them has been exported to foreign countries. So much industry concentrated in a small town, where the different works are supplied with the metals obtained within its territory, has induced government to establish there a tribunal that presides over the mines. Siegen, a place of 3800 inhabitants, with a castle and public gardens on the banks of the Sieg, has been chosen for the seat of a royal tribunal; one of its buildings is a large gymnasium. Many forges and foundries have been built in the town, but there are also soap works, woollen, linen and other manufactories.

Stalhberg. The neighbouring country abounds with slate and mines of different metals. Mount Stalhberg is situated at a short distance from the village of Mosen, it is almost wholly formed of proto-carburet of iron, or natural steel, which has been considered by good judges to be the best in Europe, for many purposes. The other mines that are worked in the district of Siegen produce annually 700 marks of silver, 300 hundred weight of copper, and 400 hundred weight of lead.

Province of Juliers, Cleves and Berg. The province of Juliers, Cleves and Berg was formed by the ancient dutchies of Cleves and Gelder, by the principality of Moers, the counties of Essen and Werben, the great dutchy of Berg founded by Napoleon, and a part of the dutchy of Juliers. It is bounded on the west and the north by the Netherlands, on the north-east and the east by the province of Westphalia, and on the south by that of the Lower Rhine. It has been divided into two governments, those of Cologne and Dusseldorf.

-lent In- ·nts The German people, the ancient inhabitants of the province, may be mentioned on account of their connexion with the Ro-

mans, and the share they had in the wars which Rome maintained against the countries that are watered by the Rhine. The *Ubii* and *Gugerni* were the most important of these tribes. The *Usipetes*, the *Tencteri* and *Sicambri* were settled on the left bank of the river. Some information may be obtained concerning these imperfectly civilized nations from the writings of ancient authors, and from the learned researches of M. Wilhelm.[a] The *Ubii*, whom Tacitus calls the *Agrippinenses*, were the neighbours of the *Gugerni*.[b] They inhabited the country which now forms the territory of Moers. Exposed to the incursions of the Suevi, who exacted tribute, or threatened to destroy them, they were compelled to implore the assistance of Julius Cæsar, at that time stationed on the opposite bank of the Rhine.

Migration.

It appears too that they were induced, in consequence of new attacks on the part of the Suevi, to place themselves under the protection of Vespasian Agrippa, who granted them lands on the left bank of the river in front of their ancient territory. While they removed to their new country, they passed the bridge which had been built across the Rhine by Agrippa. If the Ubii were enabled to migrate, it was owing to the good intelligence that subsisted between them and the Romans; at all events, both Strabo and Suetonius inform us that the Ubii were the faithful allies of the Roman people. It was in consequence of their alliance with Rome that they were involved in several wars against their neighbours, and it is not less certain that they preferred the Roman name of *Agrippinenses*, which they derived from the wife of Claudius, to the German one of *Ubier*, that denotes a people on the banks of the river; indeed every river in Germany was then called *Ob* or *Ub*.

Gugerni.

The Gugerni were one of the German tribes whom Tiberius had permitted to settle on the left banks of the Rhine, eight years before the Christian era. They were the descendants of those Sicambrians, who in the time of Julius Cæsar, inhabited the country between the Sieg and the Lippe. The amount of their population was not greater than 40,000 individuals. They agreed before they migrated to their new country to defend it against the incursions of their neighbours on the opposite bank of the river. Their territory extended from that branch of the Rhine which is called the Waal to the districts in the neighbourhood of Moers. These lands were formerly inhabited by the Menapii, who had a share in the revolt of the Batavii, under the command of Claudius Civilis. Gugerner, their name, which the Romans changed into Gugerni, was derived, says M. Wilhelm, from *gairnjan*, an old German word, which signifies to ask, and thus indicates that they settled voluntarily in the countries subject to the Romans.

Usipetes.

The *Usipetes* were one of the earliest German tribes that the Romans met with on the left bank of the Lower Rhine. Compelled to fly from the incursions of the Suevi, they settled in the country about the fifty-sixth year before the Christian era. They continued formidable to the Batavii, until the time that Cæsar subdued and forced them to cross the Rhine. They retired to the south of the Lippe, the country which the Sicambri inhabited, not far from the lands of the Tencteri, who had shared with them the dangers of their expedition, and the consequences of their defeat.

Tencteri.

Tacitus commends the cavalry of the Tencteri. "To ride well," says the historian, "was not neglected by the old, it was a source of amusement for children, and of emulation for youth. The horse was the only part of their possessions, that did not descend after the decease of its owner, to the eldest son, but was given to him who distinguished himself on the field of battle."[c]

[a] Germanien und seine Bewohner, 8vo. pages 111, 114, 138, &c. [b] Tacitus, De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 28. [c] Tacitus, De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 32.

Sicambri. The Sicambri, who ceded part of their territory to the Usipetes and Tencteri, were a very powerful and numerous people in Germany. They were one of those tribes whom Pliny designates under the name of *Istævones*.[d] They were conquered by Drusus in the twelfth year before the vulgar era.

Soil. From the neighbourhood of Cleves to Cologne, the lands on both banks of the Rhine are for the most part of a later origin than the chalk formation. From Cologne to two leagues below Bonn, in other words, to the southern limits of the province, the ternary rocks extend over a breadth of more than five leagues on the left bank of the Rhine, while their greatest breadth on the opposite bank is little more than a league. On the same side may be observed the commencement of the volcanic lands and extinguished craters, which in the neighbourhood of Coblentz, occupy a considerable extent on both sides of the river. On the left of the Rhine, or in the country between the Rhine and the Erft, that throws itself into it, and from the distance of a league to the north of Cologne, to nearly the same distance to the south beyond Bonn, a belt of land wholly composed of different kinds of sandstone and plastic argil or potters' clay, extends to the length of nearly twenty-six miles.[e] Lastly, a few detached portions of the same belt are only observed on the right or opposite bank of the Rhine.

Antiquities. There are many ancient ruins and places of which the names still attest the power of the Romans; in this point of view the country is not uninteresting to the antiquary and historian.

Cleves or Kleve. The government of Dusseldorf shall be first described. Cleves or Kleve is divided into the high and low town; it is situated on the Kermisdal, at a league from the Rhine, and in the midst of a fertile country. It is built on the declivities of three hills, and its name appears to have been derived from the Latin word *clivum* (the side of a hill,) from which probably the Romans formed *Clivia*. It is peopled by 7000 inhabitants, who consist of 5000 Catholics, 1000 Calvinists, 800 Lutherans, 40 Mennonites, and 160 Jews. A gymnasium, a fine town-house, and different manufactories, such as silk and woollen, have been built in Cleves. The town is surrounded by verdant hills, agreeable valleys, meadows and fruitful fields. A great many towns and villages may be seen in clear weather from the top of the tower, which commands the old town. The time that the tower was founded, cannot be ascertained, but it is said that it has stood since the third century before the Christian era; the accuracy of the statement, however, may be considered extremely doubtful. At the distance of less than a mile from the town, a large space of ground has been laid out into gardens, that many frequent on account of their agreeable situation and a famous mineral spring.

Nemus sacrum. Reichwald, an ancient sacred wood, the *nemus sacrum* mentioned by Tacitus,[f] is situated in the territory of Cleves; it was there that Claudius Civilis excited the Batavii to revolt against the Romans.

Other towns. Emmerich on the Rhine is remarkable for a canal, which may contain about a hundred trading vessels. The town is peopled by 4400 individuals, it has its gymnasium and seminary. Wesel, which was a village in the beginning of the twelfth century, contains at present 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are occupied in different manufactories, by means of which an active trade is carried on with the Netherlands, so that vessels loaded with merchandise depart almost every day from its harbour on the Rhine to that country. The town is surrounded with fortifications, and defended by the fort Blucher, which rises on the left bank of the river. It possesses two Catholic parishes, a Lutheran and reformed church, a gymnasium and a theatre.

[d] Pliny, Book IV. chapter 14. [e] Classification et characteres des roches, par Brongt. [f] Tacit. Histor. lib. iv. sect. 14.

Xanten or Santen contains a reformed and Catholic church, the latter is adorned with some valuable paintings by John Calcar. It is believed that the Roman town called Ulpia Castra was situated in its vicinity; and at a quarter of a league beyond it, near the village of Wisten, is the site of Vetera Castra, a town noticed by Ptolemy, and frequently mentioned in the writings of Tacitus, at least in that part of them, which contains the history of the rebellion of Claudius Civilis.[s] Although the historian informs us that at the approach of this chief, the ramparts and entrenchments were repaired, and all the buildings erected in the form of a town near the fortifications were demolished, the foundation and remains of an amphitheatre are still to be seen.

Xanten or Santen. Ulpia Castra.

Vetera Castra.

Antiquaries have discovered at some distance from these ruins, and not far from the village of Kellen; the position of Colonia Trajana, a Roman town. It is said too that the remains of a pretorium have been observed on the hill of Vorsten at a quarter of a league from Santen. It may be doubted whether the Colonia Trajana and a pretorium were built on these sites, but it is certain that the remains of Roman buildings, tombs, urns and baths have been discovered near them.

Colonia Trajana.

The small town of Geldern is remarkable for its townhouse, a large and fine building. Mœrs or Meurs is situated on the Kemelt, at a league from the Rhine: its fortress was razed in 1764, its population amounts at present to 1800 individuals. It is built near the village of Asberg, which is believed to be the ancient Asciburgium, a town mentioned both by Ptolemy and Tacitus. The lions that now adorn the townhouse of Moers were dug from the ruins in the village. Among the other articles that have been preserved are two stones on which the names of two centurions are inscribed, several Roman tombs, vases, lamps, arms and medals. Kempen is not so much known from its castle, manufactories, and a population of three thousand souls, as from being the birth-place of the celebrated Augustine, the author of the imitation of Jesus Christ. Duisburg, which contains 4500 inhabitants, is pleasantly situated between the Ruhr and the Anger, at a mile and a half from the Rhine. The neighbouring country consists of woods and fertile plains. The principal buildings are a university, a gymnasium, an orphan hospital, and the fine church of Saint Saviour. It is a place of some importance from its cloth, linen and soap manufactories, of which the produce has been estimated at 100,000 rix dollars. The quantity of tobacco manufactured and exported every year, is supposed to be worth 150,000 rix dollars. The principal part of its trade is carried on with the Netherlands. There are two iron works and foundries in the neighbourhood, from which 2,000,000 pounds of iron are obtained, and which supply a royal manufactory of arms. Crefeld has now become a flourishing town; the soil is marshy and ill adapted for agriculture, but it has been improved by the industry of its inhabitants, and the lands in the neighbourhood are at present covered with gardens, country houses and manufactories. Neuss, which is watered by the Erft, and contains 6000 inhabitants, is dirty and ill built. It is supposed by some that it was founded by Drusus. The capital of the province is situated in the vicinity, but on the right bank of the river.

Geldern, &c.

Asciburgium.

Dusseldorf holds the first rank in the government; its wealth and a population of 26,000 souls, render it one of the most important towns on the Rhine. Its name was derived from the Dussel, a small stream that watered it, before it extended to the banks of the river. Dusseldorf was merely a village at the commencement of the thirteenth century, when the duke of Neuburg, elector palatine, fixed his residence there, and afterwards enlarged it.

Dusseldorf.

[s] Lib. iv. and v.

Different quarters of the town.

The greater part of it consists of three divisions, or rather three towns built at different periods. The first is called *Alstadt* (Old Town,) the second, *Carlstadt* (Charlestown,) and the third, *Neustadt* (New Town.) Its fortifications were destroyed at the time that the French republic was extending its victories on the banks of the Rhine. Ruins are all that remain of its castle, which was bombarded in 1794, but in the midst of these ruins, the spectator observes with amazement an entire statue of John William, sculptured in white marble by Coipel. The same sculptor made the bronze equestrian statue of the same prince for the great square, which it still adorns. The large street, in which many of the houses may be compared to palaces, is not the only one that can be mentioned for its regularity. The most remarkable public buildings are the mint, the barracks, two of its fifteen churches, the one that contains the marble monument erected to the memory of Duke John, and the other which belonged formerly to the Jesuits. The useful establishments are a hospital, an academy of arts and trades, another of painting, a gymnasium, several libraries, an observatory, two colleges, and a school of anatomy and surgery. The trade of the town is considerable, it consists chiefly in sugar, glass, silk and woollen stuffs.

Elberfeld.

Elberfeld, which contains sixteen thousand inhabitants, among whom are seven thousand Calvinists, six thousand Lutherans, and three thousand Catholics, is situated on the Wipper, a feeder of the Rhine. It manufactures annually, about 24,200*l.* in lace; more than two thousand workmen are employed in weaving silk, and nearly an equal number in its linen and cotton manufactories. It has been said that a machine is erected in one of its works, by which, with the assistance of two persons, a hundred yards of lace can be woven in an hour. Among the other articles that are made, are a great variety of plated goods, and others of a metallic composition imitating silver. The capital of the different banks at Elberfeld has been supposed to be equal to 13,480,000*l.*; these establishments are supported by the industry and commerce of the town.

Neighbourhood.

Stein remarks rightly, that the love of labour is so much diffused in the neighbourhood of Elberfeld, that not less than sixteen thousand persons find the means of subsistence on a surface little more than a German square mile, or twelve English square miles in extent.[h] A thousand manufactories, mills or machineries have been erected on the plain through which the Wipper flows, and which is hardly six miles in length. Elberfeld and its environs seem to form only a single city, but it is not less distressing than remarkable to observe the great number of poor and indigent persons in the midst of this industrious population.

Solingen.

The arms and cutlery of Solingen have been famous for the last five hundred years; it is peopled by 3500 inhabitants, and in the twenty-three manufactories in the town and neighbourhood, more than two thousand workmen have been for a long time employed in finishing swords, knives and different articles of cutlery. Its trade, though by no means improved by the last political changes on the banks of the Rhine, and the custom-house system which was then established, is still very considerable.

Cologne.

Hassel does not suppose the number of inhabitants in Koeln, or Cologne, to be less than 56,400. Thus, its population is sufficient to place this metropolis of a government in the first rank among the towns on the banks of the Rhine. If Cologne was built like Dusseldorf, and peopled in the same proportion, it might be compared with the finest cities in Germany. But its narrow and dismal streets, its Gothic houses, some of which are built of brick, others of wood, and a very small number of stone, give it a gloomy and disagreeable appearance, that contrasts ill with the public buildings. The principal edifices are the town-

[h] Handbuch, der Geographie und statistik, &c.

house, which has been adorned with a double range of marble columns, the central school or ancient college of the Jesuits, the arsenal, the palace of the ancient electors, the church of St. Gereon, of which the cupola is much admired, that of the Minorites, not less remarkable on account of its portal, and lastly, the cathedral built in the thirteenth century, and which, if finished, might be the finest of any in Cologne. The interior of the cathedral is large and imposing; it is about four hundred feet in length, a hundred columns support the vaulted roof; and the choir, in which the elegance and boldness of the execution cannot escape notice, reaches to the height of two hundred feet. The church of St. Peter, where Rubens was baptized, is adorned with the fine painting representing the martyrdom of the apostle Peter, a painting that remained there until 1794, was then carried to the Louvre, and twenty years afterwards, brought back to Cologne.

Relics.

Some of the twenty churches in Cologne, contain a great number of relics, that are held in veneration by a credulous people. Those in the cathedral are the bones of the twelve apostles, the cross of St. Peter, the magnificent shrine of St. Engelbert, and the sarcophagus of the Three Magi, which is distinguished by the beauty of its sculpture, and the profusion of its ornaments. In the church of St. Ursula, are preserved the supposed bones of that saint, and those of the eleven thousand virgins, her supposed companions; their skulls are arranged in order, round the walls of a small chapel within the church. These objects of popular superstition, the churches, of which the number was formerly twice as great, and the doors of the churches, that are still beset by a crowd of mendicants, are likely to impress the stranger with no favourable notion as to the knowledge and education of the people in Cologne. It was believed that the Protestants form but a very small part of the inhabitants; it has been ascertained, however, that there are more than two thousand Calvinists. The industry of the town is insignificant in proportion to its population, a truth that may be confirmed by the low state of its trade and manufactures. There are, however, several scientific institutions, among others a college with a library of sixty thousand volumes, another library containing thirty thousand, a collection of philosophical instruments, a botanical garden, in which the number of plants amounts to four thousand, an anatomical theatre, a mineralogical museum, and an academy of painting. There are not fewer than twenty hospitals, an infirmary, and a lunatic asylum, most of which were founded by charitable persons. It is unnecessary to say much of its theatre and other places of amusement. This town, encompassed with ditches and old walls, flanked with turrets, of which the extent may be equal to two leagues in circumference, is a place of great antiquity.

Oppidum Ubiorum.

It is supposed to have been the capital of the Ubii (*Oppidum Ubiorum*,) of which the name was changed into *Colonia Agrippina*, in honour of Agrippina, who was born within its walls, and who enlarged and improved them. Several remains of its antiquity may still be observed, among others, the ruins of an ancient Roman hall; the church of St. Peter was built on the ruins of a heathen temple; and the site of a Roman capital may still be seen.

Historical recollections.

Cologne was styled a municipal town, and capital of Second Germany in the reign of Claudius. The Romans were driven from it by Merowee, king of the Franks, in the year 449; not long afterwards it was ruined by Attila, and again repaired and built by the Romans. Chilperic took possession of it, and it became the capital of the kingdom of Cologne, which continued until the time it was conquered by Clodowig or Clovis, who added and united the territory to France. The kings of the first race used to reside there; Charlemagne himself often preferred it to Aix-la-Chapelle. It was declared a free and imperial town during

the reign of Otho the Great, in the year 957. It was surrounded with walls by the Archbishop Philip of Heinsberg in 1187. It entered into the Hanseatic league in 1260, and in the fourteenth century its archbishops were raised to the electoral dignity.[1] Lastly, under the French usurpation, it was made the capital of a division in the department of the Roër.

Trade. The trade of Cologne consists in woollen stuffs, ribands, and porcelain, there are, besides, several distilleries, and the most important are those of the spirit which bears the name of the town; but that which contributes most to enrich it, is its harbour on the Rhine, for it is thus rendered the intermediate station of a considerable trade with Germany and the Netherlands. Rubens, Cornelius Agrippa, and the founder of the Chartreux were born in Cologne.

Buruncum. Worengen, at some distance to the north of the last town, is built on the site of the ancient *Buruncum*, where a detachment of the seventh legion was quartered. Several Roman ruins are still observed in the neighbourhood.

Tolbiacum. Zulpic is the *Tolbiacum* of Tacitus, a town celebrated during the middle ages, on account of the victory which Clovis gained over the Germans, and which was one cause of his conversion to Christianity.

Bonn. Bonn, or the ancient *Bonna*, opposite to which, according to Florus, Drusus built a bridge over the Rhine, is situated on the right bank of that river, about five leagues distance to the south of Cologne. The beauty of its situation induced the ancient electors to choose it for their residence. Its population, says Hassel, amounts to 10,566 inhabitants; it is well built and the streets are spacious. As to its public buildings, we may mention four of its churches, a townhouse of modern architecture, a hospital, a college, and a theatre. Its castle, a large and elegant building, is now converted into a university, which was founded in 1818. It contains a library of 25,000 volumes, a museum of natural history, and other scientific collections.

Ara Ubiorum. An ancient monument, possessing considerable interest, may be seen on the square of Saint Remi. It is formed by a number of pillars, and consecrated to victory; the following words are inscribed on it, *Deæ victoriæ sacrum*. Some antiquaries consider it the *ara Ubiorum*, mentioned by ancient authors; but the subject has so much puzzled archaiologists that none have hitherto ventured to determine whether it was originally erected at Cologne or Bonn.[k] A large piece of ground near the town, belongs to an agricultural school; the different nurseries and collections of plants in that establishment are laid out in public walks. The small town of Brühl is not more than two leagues distant from Bonn; its mineral springs are much visited, and it is also well known on account of the magnificent castle of Augustemburg.

Castrum Trajani. Antiquaries insist that Trajansdorf is the correct name of the small village of Traunsdorf at no great distance from Bonn. The number of Roman antiquities that have been found there, and other reasons, render it probable that it was the Castrum Trajani. Bonn carries on a trade in coarse cotton, soap and nitric acid. Salmon weighing forty or fifty pounds are often exposed in its markets; they are taken in the Sieg, a small river that waters the town of Siegburg, situated about six miles from Bonn, on the right bank of the Rhine.

Province of the Lower Rhine. The province of the Lower Rhine is mostly formed by the ancient French departments of the Roër, the Rhine and Moselle, the Sarre, and also by a portion of the department of Ourthe. It is bounded on the west and the north by the Netherlands, on the east by the governments of Dusseldorf and Cologne, the principality of Nassau, the

[1] Saint Marthe, Gall. Christ, tom I. [k] See G. Ghelen, de Admiranda sacra et civili magnitudine Coloniæ, 1645. Memoires et notice de D'Anville sur les Gaules.

great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, the landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg, the principality of Birkenfeld, and the circle of the Rhine, a Bavarian province; on the south by France. Its extent is about a hundred and thirty-eight miles from north to south, and sixty-four at its greatest breadth from east to west. Its surface is nearly equal to four thousand eight hundred English square miles. It is divided into three governments, of which the chief towns are Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblentz, and Treves.

Ancient inhabitants. Eburones.

The Eburones and Treveri were the ancient German people, that inhabited the large forests in the province. The former were scattered on both the banks of the Meuse, and their lands extended to the modern territory of Juliers. They appear to have been the most ancient inhabitants of the country, at least no mention is made of any others that possessed it before them. Their principal fortress is called *Atuatuca* in the commentaries of Cæsar. They acted an important part in the war against the Gauls, and gained under the command of Ambiorix, a complete victory over a Roman legion;[l] but being defeated at a latter period by Cæsar, they gave up their country to the Tungri.

Treveri.

The Treveri were a powerful and warlike nation; Cæsar commends their cavalry, it was formidable to the Romans.[m] The same people, says Tacitus, boasts of being sprung from the ancient Germans.[n] They were one of those tribes, that long before the expedition of Cæsar into Gaul, crossed the Rhine, and settled in the fertile valley of the Moselle. The ancient date of their settlement in the country is proved, as M. Wittenbach remarks,[o] by their advancement in civilization, at the time it was invaded by the Romans. They did not then wander in the forests, but exercised a sort of authority over the Nervii, Ubii, Tungri, and Eburones, their neighbours. They were not ignorant of the arts, they built towns, and enacted laws.

Government.

Their government was an elective monarchy, in which the chiefs shared the power with their sovereign. The prince was supreme judge of his people; he was proclaimed and placed on a buckler, according to the custom of other nations in Gaul and Germany. A union or meeting of the nobles formed the senate of the Treveri, and that assembly retained its authority after their country was conquered by the Romans. The Roman senate, writing to that of Treves, about the year 225 of the Christian era, designates it in the following way,—*Senatus amplissimus curiæ Treviorum.*

Manners and customs.

Every man in the nation was bred to arms. A coat of armour was their *toga virilis;* war was the only road to dignity and preferment. They entered so much the more eagerly into battle, because to defend their habitations and country, was considered the most sacred duty. Persuaded that the divinity directed and assisted their efforts, the Treveri kept their arms and standards in places consecrated to the gods. It is probably for the same reason, that during war, the priest of the city, as Tacitus informs us, had a right to punish the guilty, and to send them before the sovereign judge.[p] According to the religious notions of the same people, bravery was the only virtue which was rewarded after death. The Treveri inhabited a portion of that country, which the Romans called *Gallia Comata*, from the long hair of its inhabitants.

Appearance, costume.

Like other German nations, they were distinguished by their fair complexion and long hair, divided in front, and falling on each side of the face. Some few had their hair knotted or bound at the crown of the head, and all of them wore long beards. The body was covered with a short and broad tunic, over which a woollen mantle was thrown. The dress of the women differed chiefly in its length from that

[l] C. J. Cæsaris Commentaria, Lib. V. [m] Idem, ibid. Lib. II. [n] De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 28. [o] Abriss der Tririschen Geschichte. [p] *Sacerdos Civitatis,* de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 10.

of the men; but their tunics were without sleeves, their shoulders and arms were not covered. Such are the principal facts that can be collected from the writings of the ancients, concerning the Eburones and Treveri. The territory situated between the countries of these two people, was inhabited by the Condrusi and Cœresi, who are mentioned by Cæsar, and who were in some respects under the government of the Treveri.[q]

Soil. ¶ Geologists have observed many different kinds of land and rocks in the province of the Lower Rhine. At its northern extremity are ternary deposites, or those of the last formation, similar to others in the vicinity of Paris. To the north of Aix-la-Chapelle, these deposites are succeeded by streaked and other varieties of sandstone, plastic argil and coal; an immense deposite of gneiss extends on the west, and coal and intermediate calcareous rocks on the east; lastly, the masses of sandstone, which are known in Germany by the name *quadersandstein*, are found in the south, and are surrounded by intermediate limestone. From the south-east of Aix-la-Chapelle, or the neighbourhood of Malmedy, to the Eyfel mountains, the land abounds in schistus and sandstone, in the midst of which a belt of calcareous rocks stretches from north to south.

Volcanic mountains. | The country to the north of the Moselle, including all the eastern part of the province, and the districts beyond the Rhine, has most excited the attention of geologists. That region is formed by different chains of volcanic mountains, that rise near calcareous rocks, such as were formed in the depths of the primitive ocean, which has left so many traces on the surface of the earth.

Eyfel Gebirge. | The most important of these chains is the Eyfel (Eyfel Gebirge;) many of its volcanic summits are remarkable on account of their height; from one of them, the Kyll, a small river descends southwards, and throws itself into the Moselle.

Heaths. | But before the traveller can arrive at that country, still marked with the action of subterranean fire, he must traverse large downs covered with heath in the neighbourhood of Monjoie between Eussen and Malmedy. Goldberg, from which a very extensive horizon, bounded by conical summits, presents itself to the view, is the first volcanic mountain that can be seen after passing the heaths. At every step the stranger takes in this region, he perceives vast craters or mountains, that seem to have emitted lava at different periods. Such at least is the opinion of M. Steininger,[r] and it must be confessed, if these heights be compared with the Puy-de-Dome, that his opinian is not improbable.

Juliers. | We shall commence our account of the different towns with that of Juliers or *Julich*, which, although it contains only three thousand inhabitants, is important from its commerce, its cloth and riband manufactories. That small city is besides well known from its antiquity. Ammianus Marcellinus speaks of it,[s] and it is called Juliacum in the itinerary of Antonine.

Aix-la-Chapelle. | Aix-la-Chapelle or Aachen, the capital of a circle, and the chief town of the province, contains, according to Hassel, thirty-three thousand six hundred inhabitants. But that number was not equal to a third part of its population during the period of its splendour, at the time when the German emperors were crowned there, and made it occasionally the place of their residence. It was then enriched by its trade and industry, but strangers are only attracted to it at present by its mineral waters, which, together with its cotton and muslin manufactures, and its trade in watches and jewellery, form the principal source of its wealth. Some authors, endeavouring to prove its ancient origin from the antiquities which have been found in it, and from its Latin name, *Aquæ-Grani*, maintain that it was founded by Serenius Granus, who lived in the time of

[q] Commentaria, Libri II. et VI.

[r] Bemerkungen ueber die Eyfel und Auvergne.

[s] Liber XVII. sect. 2.

Hadrian. It is more likely that the merit of having founded it, is due to Charlemagne, for before the fifth century it was only a Roman bath or an insignificant town, which was wholly destroyed by Attila. The old ramparts have been changed into public walks, some of the streets are broad and regular, and several public buildings are too remarkable to be past over in silence. The townhouse, flanked with turrets, is not inferior to any in Germany. Lewis the Debonair, Charles the Fifth, and other sovereigns, were crowned in one of its halls. All its churches are very ancient; that of Saint Ulric has been admired for the height and symmetry of its arches; it may be remarked too that one-half of it belongs to the Lutherans, and the other to the Catholics. The interior is adorned with several paintings by Cranach and other celebrated masters. The finest organ in Germany has been supposed to be the one in the Church of the Franciscans. Few buildings can be compared with the cathedral, both on account of its windows, its thirty colossal columns, its bronze portal, and the magnificence of its Gothic architecture. It was built by Charlemagne; the white marble chair is still preserved on which that emperor, and the princes who succeeded him, used to sit.

Many relics, of which the authenticity may be doubted, are presented every seven years to the veneration of superstitious people, and to a number of pilgrims that crowd together on these occasions. Some of the articles exhibited are the robe of the Virgin Mary, the swaddling clothes of Jesus, the bloody linen on which the head of John the Baptist was exposed, and the cincture worn by our Saviour at his crucifixion. The people, one would think, can hardly be at present deluded by such impositions. The skull of Charlemagne, who was buried in the cathedral, may still be seen. His sword, baldrick, and book of the gospels are preserved in the townhouse, and at every coronation of an emperor, they are sent to the city where the ceremony is to take place. The buildings added to the town since the Prussians obtained possession, are a mint and redoubt of solid architecture, with an exterior surrounded by arcades. The places of amusement are a German theatre, a concert room, and a casino. The literary and scientific institutions are not important; they consist of an academy of sciences, a college, a school of drawing, and a collection of models relative to the arts and trades. A gallery of paintings is the most valuable collection in the town. | Relics.

The neighbourhood of Aix-la-Chapelle has been much admired; the land, though not fertile, is well cultivated, and the public walks are laid out with great taste; that of Mount Lewis is the most frequented. The small town of Burtscheid is situated in the immediate vicinity; it is peopled by four thousand six hundred inhabitants, who carry on a trade in cloth, needles, and other articles. The road that leads to the town, the beautiful valley on which it is built, the warm springs that may be discovered at a distance, from the vapours they exhale, the streams that supply the different manufactories, and the ruins of an old castle, part of which is now converted into an inn, form together a fine landscape in the neighbourhood of Burtscheid. | Neighbourhood.

Düren on the Roër, is not inferior to the last town in the number of its inhabitants; its trade consists principally in cloth, ribands, and soap. A statue of John Nepomucene, a saint, whose memory was held in veneration, has been erected at Düren. The same town appears to be the Marcodurum that is mentioned in the annals of Tacitus. A number of iron works and eight paper mills are situated in the vicinity. | Marcodurum.

Eupen is a town of ten thousand inhabitants, and the most industrious amongst them are the descendants of the French protestants that fled from their country after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. Cloth is the most important of its manufactures, the others are leather, soap and paper. Malmedy carries on a lucrative trade in leather; its population amounts to four thousand individuals. | Eupen.

Different towns. Neuweid, a small town not much more populous, but much more industrious than the preceding, stands on the opposite bank of the Rhine. Household furniture, hardware, and different articles of cutlery, amounting in weight to fifteen hundred tons, are exported from it every year. A number of antiquities has been collected in a castle belonging to the prince of Neuweid, which are by so much the more interesting from the circumstance that all of them were found on the site of a Roman camp in the vicinity.[t]

Monument to general Hoche. The village of Weisselthurm is situated in the neighbourhood of the same town. It is there that a monument was erected to the memory of general Hoche, whose ashes are deposited on the left bank of the Rhine, not far from Andernach, and near the grave of Marceau. Ehrenbreitstein or Thal-Ehrenbreitstein in the neighbourhood of Andernach, is a small and well built town, of two thousand inhabitants; at no great distance from it are the ruins of a Roman bridge, and the hill, on which the important fortress stood, that the French took and destroyed in the year 1799. The same fortress, now in ruins, was defended by a very large piece of ordnance, which has since been removed to the arsenal of Mentz.

Coblentz. A flying bridge, constructed across the Rhine, and which moves every quarter of an hour, leads from Ehrenbreitstein to Coblentz. That capital of the province, situated on the river, at the junction of the Moselle, is encompassed with extensive fortifications, to which additions have been made by the Prussians since 1814. It contains fourteen thousand inhabitants; the streets are straight and regular; none of its edifices have been so much admired as the palace, which was built in 1799 by the elector of Treves, who made it his residence. Of its sixteen churches, fourteen belong to the Catholics, one to the Lutherans of the Augsburg confession, and another to the Calvinists. A synagogue has been built by the Jews. The principal institutions are a college, a seminary, and a mount of piety. It possesses a large theatre, its quays are well constructed, and the stone bridge on the Moselle may be considered one of its finest buildings.

Confluentes. Coblentz was the ancient Confluentes, of which mention is made in the itinerary of Antonine, and by Ammianus Marcellinus.[u] The same place, during the western empire, was the residence of a military engineer, who took the title of *Praefectus militum defensorum.*[x] Its commerce consists chiefly, at present, of Moselle wine, grain, wood, and coal. The neighbouring country is well wooded, and abounds in romantic scenery. Teinstein, at a short distance from Coblentz, has been much frequented for its mineral waters.

Antunnacum. But about twelve miles to the north-west is situated the small town of Andernach, the *Antunnacum* of the ancients. It contains several remarkable ruins, as the gate of Coblentz, the bath of the Jews, a Roman building, and the palace of the kings of Austrasia. In its church are deposited the remains of the emperor Valentinian. The town stands on a volcanic hill about six hundred and sixty feet above the level of the Rhine, and near the embouchure of the Nette. It carries on a considerable trade in the different volcanic products with which the whole adjacent country was at one time covered; its tufa is much used by the Dutch in constructing their dikes and embankments, and its lava millstones are not uncommon in many parts of the continent. The immense rafts of naval timber, obtained from the German forests, and destined principally for the different ports in the low countries, pass by the immediate neighbourhood of Andernach.

[t] See Mr. Hofman's work. Grundriss des Roemischen castel bey Neuweid, nebst andern Denkmalern, in 8vo. 1803. [u] Liber XVIII. c. 2. [x] Notit. Imp. Occident.

The lake of Laache is situated at three miles distance to the south-east of the last town. It is about thirteen hundred acres in superficies, and nearly two hundred feet at its greatest depth. From the lava that surrounds it, and its oval form, it appears to occupy the site of an ancient crater. It is fed by forty springs, and it has never been known to freeze during the most severe winter. Pike of a very large size, and several kinds of fish, are taken in it. | Lake of Laache.

No town of any consequence can be observed in the country between Treves and Coblentz, all those on the banks of the Moselle are small and insignificant; there are two, however, on the left bank of the Rhine, which ought to be mentioned. The first is Boppart, peopled by three thousand inhabitants, and containing three churches, a college, cotton and linen manufactories, and several tan yards. Antiquaries believe that it stands on the site of Baudobrica, one of the five citadels built by Drusus, in which was stationed a prefect of the balistarii, (*Præfectus militum balistariorum.*) The other town is Kreuznach; it is peopled by six thousand eight hundred inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade in sugar made from beetrave. Two salt works are situated in its vicinity, from which more than 500,000 pounds of salt are annually obtained. | Baudobrica.

Treves, which is called Trier in Germany, is surrounded with a great many monuments and ruins, that attest the importance and splendour of the town when it bore the name of *Augusta Trevirorum.* Augustus conferred on it the title of capital of second Belgian Gaul, and Ammianus Marcellinus, wishing to describe its extent, population, and edifices, calls it the second Rome. It was ruined at different times by the Huns, the Goths, the Vandals and the Franks, and has as often been rebuilt. But it has lost the rank which it held in ancient Germany; its population at present is not greater than fifteen thousand souls. There are many fine walks in the neighbourhood; it is situated in the middle of a fruitful valley. The streets are broad and straight, and some of the public buildings are imposing. It carries on a trade in different kinds of linen and woollen stuffs, leather and beetrave sugar. Its university, founded in 1455, retained its reputation for a long time. The antiquities which it contains, have tended to promote the study of archaiology. The museum is very valuable, and the library not less so, particularly in manuscripts and editions of the fifteenth century; the number of volumes amounts to seventy thousand. | Treves.

According to a popular tradition, which originated in a monkish history of the thirteenth century, Treves was founded by Trebeta, the son of Minus, thirteen hundred years before the foundation of Rome. Other fables equally ridiculous are related concerning its antiquity. It is not improbable, however, that the Trevi possessed a place of some importance long before the Christian era, or in other words, a number of scattered cottages, which no more resembled a city than the habitations of some savage hordes in North America. Tacitus,[y] Ausonius[z] and Dion Cassius[a] make frequent mention of Treves. The most ancient Roman monument is perhaps the bridge on the Moselle, a bridge that has of late years been the subject of a memoir; M. Wittenbach supposes it was built in the twenty-eighth year before the Christian era, by Vipsanius Agrippa. It appears to have been the same bridge that is described by Tacitus.[b] | Antiquity of Treves.

The gate of Mars (*Porta Martis,*) or the Black Gate, is another building, more important, though less ancient, than the last, for the same learned antiquary believes it to have been founded in the time of Constantine the Great. Two arcades on the ground floor, two | Gate of Mars.

[y] Hist. Lib. IV. and V. &c. [z] Mos. V. 10. [a] Lib. XVI. [b] Lib. IV.

stories adorned with columns and arched windows, two square turrets, forming a third story in the same style, render this monument, which by no means resembles a triumphal arch, less remarkable for its architecture than its state of preservation. All the different objects of antiquity that have been found in the town, are collected in this vast building. The gate of the baths (thermæ,) that appears to have been finished after the third century, serves as an entrance into Treves. It is likely, too, that the square tower which rises above it, does not belong to a more remote epoch; it is a fort or *propugnaculum*. Lastly, the edifice, which has been supposed the palace of Constantine, and which was more probably attached to the baths, for the imperial palace was situated near the bridge, is in a very entire state; it has for a long time been used as barracks.

Churches. | Many of the churches in Treves are large and well built, some of them may serve to recall the wealth of the convents to which they were attached. The cathedral is generally believed to be the most ancient, but it has rather the appearance of a fortress than a church. The eye is fatigued with the great profusion of ornaments and statues. The church of our Lady is remarkable for the lightness of its Gothic architecture, and those of Saint Paulinus and Saint Maximin, although of modern date, are adorned with fine paintings.

Neighbourhood. | It is not only within the town of Treves that many ruins and antiquities give us some notion of Roman splendour; the site of an amphitheatre may be seen beyond its walls; among the vines, which now grow on a soil that has been trodden by gladiators, are the remains of the vaults where wild animals were kept before the combats. It was in the same place that Constantine, who was long revered as a saint, ordered several thousand Frank or French prisoners, with their chiefs Askarich and Ragoys, to be torn by wild beasts. To gratify the emperor, other spectacles of the same sort were renewed at different times, and he gave them the name of *ludi Francici*, or the French games.[a]

Monuments at Igel. | The ruins of a Roman way between Treves and Reims are observed at some distance on the road which leads to Luxemburg. But perhaps the most curious monument which the Romans have left in all the country of the Gauls, is the one at the village of Igel, in the same direction and on the same road. Antiquaries have examined it in vain, and the purpose for which it was erected is still doubtful. It is a sort of quadrangular tower, terminated in the form of a pyramid, and surmounted by a terrestrial globe, on which an eagle rests. Ausonius says, that like the pharos of Memphis, it rises above every other building. If it be the tower that he alludes to, some allowance must be made for poetical license. Its height, it is certain, is less than seventy feet, and its breadth is not greater than fifteen. It is stated, in a letter, published in 1824, and addressed to Vauquelin, the celebrated chemist, that the monument is crowned by a genius with extended wings, kneeling on a globe. The author of the letter is probably mistaken, or if his statement be correct, it proves the ignorance of the German architect, who was appointed by government to repair the tower.[b] We examined it carefully before it was repaired, and could easily distinguish an eagle in the same position as on several medals. It is well known that the head of the eagle was destroyed by a cannon ball in 1675, during the engagement in which the Marshal of Crequi was defeated on the plain of Treves.

Purpose for which it was erected. | As to the purpose for which it was erected, it appears to us to have been a monument raised to the memory of the dead. It cannot be denied that a learned German is of a different

[a] See Abriss der trierischen geschichte by Wittenbach.

[b] Lettre sur quelques antiquités peu connues en France à M. Vauquelin, membre de l'institut; par M. Raymond, ancien professeur de l'université.

opinion; he supposes that it was intended to record either the birth of Caligula, or the marriage of Constantius Chlorus with the empress Helen.[c] It is not improbable that an ornament on one of the bas-reliefs, the figure of a man offering his hand to a woman, has originally led to this supposition. But it may be mentioned that the same opinion has been formerly maintained and refuted. The dances and games of the different genii with which the tower is decorated, as well as a figure of the shepherd Paris, are not incompatible with the design of a funeral monument. A mutilated inscription, which has been explained and restored by antiquaries, leads us to conclude that the tower was built by two members of the *Secundini* family in memory of Secundinus Securus, a wealthy merchant, the founder of Igel, during the latter part of the fourth century.[d]

Different towns.

No large towns are situated between Treves and the southern extremity of the province. Sarreburg or Saarburg, is a small town of two thousand inhabitants, with a bridge on the Sarre; the streets are dirty and ill built. The picturesque course of the Sarre is confined by steep and rugged rocks. The village of Mettlach is situated at some distance above the last place, on the banks of the same river. In its vicinity are the remains of a fine abbey that belonged to the Benedictines. Sarrelouis was built in 1680, and fortified by Vauban; one of its squares is large, and most of the streets are well arranged. Before the last treaties, this town formed part of the district of Thionville, and it contained four thousand three hundred inhabitants. Hassel, whose ordinary accuracy on such subjects cannot be disputed, estimated its population in 1819, at six thousand nine hundred and seventy-two individuals. But however much it may have flourished under the Prussian government, it is difficult to suppose that the population could have almost doubled within the course of a few years, and that a town, of which the length from one gate to another, is not more than five or six hundred paces, and which is, besides, so much confined by fortifications, could hold so many inhabitants. The important iron works at Dilling are situated in the vicinity. Sarrebrück, or Saarbrück, which in point of the space that it occupies, is larger than Sarrelouis, does not, according to the calculations of M. Hassel, contain so great a number of inhabitants; for it appears from his statistical tables, that the population does not exceed six thousand four hundred persons. The streets are large and regular, and its public buildings, of which the most remarkable are a protestant church, a gymnasium and a theatre, are modern and of good architecture. It is united by a fine bridge to the town of St. John, which has now become its suburbs. Mount Halberg in the neighbourhood, was probably the site of a Roman town, the *Pons Saravi*, that is mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine. There are a few ruins still left, to which the peasants have given the name of the old heathen chapel (*die alte heiden capelle.*) Sarrebrück carries on a trade in iron, instruments of agriculture, and in coal from the neighbouring county.

Burning hill.

A small hill at a short distance from Solsbach emits flames and smoke. As it contains a coal mine, its combustion, which may be attributed to the decomposition of sulphuretted iron, is not very extraordinary, at least other examples of the same kind might be mentioned. Those who visit it, remark that the schistous blocks, of which the

[c] Account of the monuments at Igel, by Neurohr, a German work.

[d] The following is the inscription, as it has been explained and restored by M. M. Neller and Cloten in 1788, and quoted by M. Wittenbach in his history of Treves.

D. T. Secundino Securo, qui locum Aegla vocatum fundavit primus, cum Secundino Aventino ac filiis Secundini Securi et Publicæ Pacatæ conjugis Secundini Aventini, et Lucio Saccio Modesto et Modestio Macedoni filio ejus judici, Secundinius Aventinius et Secundinius Securus parentibus defunctis et defuncturis, sibi vivi, viæ hujus reintegratores posuerunt.

hill is composed, are so hot that they cannot keep their hands on them for any length of time. The same rock is in many places calcined, and the shrubs that grow on them are stunted, and of a yellow foliage. How widely different are such phenomena from those that volcanic mountains exhibit!

Towns. | Although all the towns in the province of the Lower Rhine, have been mentioned, it is necessary to notice the circle of Wetzlar, a dependence on that province, from which, however, it is more than fifteen miles distant. Its territory, surrounded by the states belonging to the princes of Nassau and Hesse-Darmstadt, is nearly a hundred and eighty English square miles in superficial extent.

Wetzlar. | Wetzlar, situated at the confluence of the Dell and the Wetzbach into the Lahn, contains about four thousand seven hundred inhabitants; its trade consists chiefly in leather. Braunfels, another town in the same circle, which is attached to the government of Coblentz, possesses a strong castle, and a population of more than thirteen hundred persons. The country, in which both these places are situated, is so rugged and mountainous, that the use of every sort of carriage is rendered impracticable. If the circle of Wetzlar be ill calculated to awaken the attention of an historian or geographer, it may gratify the readers of Werter, who may there visit the tomb of Charlotte, and the different places and sites connected with that story.

Small districts. | The burghs of Wandersleben and Muhlberg are situated in a small territory of about fifteen square miles, surrounded by the dutchy of Saxe-Gotha, and dependent on the government of Erfurt. Another territory attached to the same government, and somewhat larger than the last, for its surface is about forty-two square miles, lies in the midst of the principalities of Saxe-Weimar, Schwartzenburg and Reuss. The burgh of Rhanis, or the most important place in the district, may contain about seven hundred inhabitants. Lastly, the town of Suhl, with a population of five thousand five hundred individuals, is built on a district under the government of Erfurt. The inhabitants carry on a trade in arms. The lands in the same territory, which form a part of a mountainous country, called the forest of Thuringia (Thuringer-Wald,) are not less than a hundred and fifty square miles in extent; they are surrounded by the four principalities of Saxony, and also by those of Schwartzenburg and Hesse-Cassel.

Neuchatel. | But Neuchatel in Swisserland, a Prussian principality, is more remote than any other from Prussia Proper and the Prussian possessions on the Rhine.

That principality, which the Germans call Newenburg, is bounded on the north by the canton of Bern, on the east by the same canton and the lake of Neuchatel, on the south by the canton of Vaud, and on the west by France. Its greatest extent from north-east to south-west is about twenty-nine miles, and between twelve and fifteen from west to east; its surface, as has been already remarked, is equal to two hundred and thirty-four square miles, and the population to fifty-one thousand five hundred inhabitants. Some account shall be now given of its soil and climate.

Soil. | That part of the Jura chain in which it is situated, abounds in mineral, sulphureous or ferruginous springs, and in different calcareous or silicious rocks, mixed with organic remains of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The mountains in the canton of Neuchatel are not so lofty as in the neighbourhood of Geneva. Six or seven valleys, some of which, such as those of Rutz and Travers, afford rich pasture, make up the greater part of the land. The plains are more fruitful in wine than in corn, and the inhabitants are obliged to purchase from their neighbours more than 300,000 florins worth of grain.

The sale of the red wines produces a revenue of 180,000 florins, which added to that derived from the fruit, lint and cattle, furnishes a net profit of 60,000 florins. It derives also a considerable profit from the fishings on its lake, from the copper and iron mines in the high country, and from the Swiss tea and vulnerary herbs that are collected on its mountains. | Produce.

As to its climate, the canton of Neuchatel may be divided into three distinct regions. The best vines and the best crops of hemp and lint are raised on the lowest and most temperate region, or the one along the banks of the lake. A range of mountains separates it from two lofty valleys, which extend from north-east to south-west; different sorts of grain are sown on them, and they yield excellent pasture. The third or most elevated region is covered with wood, heath and pasture. The inhabitants of the high country are exposed to a cold climate, and oats are the only grain that can be produced in the district. Spring and autumn are of short duration; winter lasts seven or eight months of the year, the snow rises often to the height of the houses, and almost as soon as it disappears, the severe frosts of winter are succeeded by a scorching summer.

It might be concluded that this region, exposed from its height to the temperature of northern climates, was inhabited by an ignorant, poor, and superstitious people. Few countries, however, are peopled by more enlightened, and it might be added, more wealthy inhabitants. | Industry.

The arts of engraving and watch-making have been cultivated on these mountains with great success. Almost all the population in Locle, one of the highest towns, are employed in working gold, silver, and steel, for watches and different articles of cutlery. The art of the watchmaker appears to have been unknown there before the year 1680. John Richards, a mountaineer, when about fifteen years of age, saw a watch for the first time; he examined it, tried to make another like it, and succeeded after repeated efforts. Thus, an humble peasant by his example and persevering genius, was the means of introducing a source of wealth into his village, that has since been extended over all the valleys of Jura. Chaux-de-Fonds, formerly a small village, now an important town, carries on a considerable trade in watches, musical boxes, and different articles; its elevation is still higher than that of Locles. It was the birthplace of the Drozes, two brothers, who were both celebrated mechanicians. The same kind of industry, and the same activity, are observable at Couvet Travers, and other places.

It is difficult to assign any limits to the inventive genius of man; some notion may be formed of what it can achieve by visiting these mountains. Peasants wishing to improve their condition, and increase their enjoyments, sought and found in the depths of the earth, an immense addition to the productive power of their hands. The inhabitants on the chain of Jura had long remarked that the water produced by rain and melted snow, enters crevices even on the highest summits, by which it descends in subterranean channels to the base of the mountains, and forms springs or rivulets. The subterranean beds were discovered after deep excavations had been made; ingenious works were constructed to prevent the earth from filling up the cavities, the channels were enlarged at a great expense, in short, mills and machinery were erected, by which their labour was facilitated and abridged. Thus, an advantage was derived, that could not be obtained from the springs that escape occasionally from the mountains into the elevated plains. In a territory where the inhabitants are so industrious as in the canton of Neuchatel, it need not excite surprise, that five thousand six hundred persons are employed in weaving lace, three thousand three hundred workmen in making watches, a great number in engraving, and about seven hundred in painting and dying the linen and

cotton goods of the country. The quantity of these goods has been estimated at sixty thousand pieces; the number of watches at a hundred and thirty thousand; they are exported into Germany, Italy, Spain, Turkey, and even America.

Ancient inhabitants. The ancient inhabitants of the country, that now forms the principality of Neuchatel, were those Helvetii who are mentioned by Cæsar, in the first book of his commentaries. It may be as well to defer what we have to say concerning them until we treat of Swisserland.

Neuchatel. The commercial town of Neuchatel, which in ancient documents bears the name of *Novum-Castrum*, appears to have been originally a fortress that the Romans erected to defend themselves against the attacks of the Helvetic nation. It is built in a circular form on the banks of the lake of the same name, and at the mouth of the Seyon, a small river that crosses the town, and discharges itself into the lake. The number of inhabitants amounts to five thousand. It is adorned by four principal streets and a large castle. The gymnasium, several public schools, the townhouse, the orphan and two other hospitals, as well as an agricultural and economical society, have been founded by two respectable and wealthy merchants, natives of the town.* Neuchatel has experienced several great calamities, and it might have been completely ruined, had it not been for the industry and patriotism of its citizens. It was taken and sacked by the emperor Conrad the Second, in the year 1033; it was burned by Henry, bishop of Bale and count of Neuchatel, in 1249; it was almost wholly consumed by a conflagration in 1450; a great part of it was much spoiled by an inundation of the Seyon in 1579; and, lastly, the whole street that communicates with the castle was destroyed by a fire in 1714. In order to provide in some measure against the chances of fire, insurance companies were established in the year 1811.

Lake of Neuchatel. The lake that washes the walls of Neuchatel adds so much to the beauty of the neighbouring country, that it may be right to describe it. It is not much less than twenty-four miles at its greatest length, and about six at its greatest breadth. The level of its waters has been found to be nearly a hundred and sixty-four feet above the lake of Geneva, and about one thousand and sixty-three above the Mediterranean. Saussure measured its depth at a mile and a half to the south of the town, and found it to be three hundred and twenty-five feet. The surface of the lake must have been at one time much larger than at present; that fact may be proved by the marshes on the south of the town, near the river Orbe, by a tradition which many believe, that Yverdun stood formerly on the banks of the lake, although it is now several hundred yards removed from it, by the sand still found at some distance from its banks, which is in every respect the same as the sand in the lake. The diminution of surface may be attributed to the alluvial deposites carried down to the mouths of the rivers and streams by which the lake is fed. It is easy to discover among the pebbles and sand in these deposites, that rise like downs near the banks, the same sort of shell-fish as those that still exist in the lake.

Other towns. We have already taken notice of Locles and Chaux-de-Fonds on account of the industry of their inhabitants; the former town contains five thousand nine hundred individuals, and the latter four thousand three hundred. Wallengin, situated on the Seyon, and surrounded by a romantic valley, was formerly the chief town of a county. The number of cities in a territory so mountainous and confined, is no indication of its wealth. Three towns, as many burghs, sixty-seven villages, and as many hamlets, are peopled in the proportion of one thousand three hundred and forty-six persons for every square league, or upwards of two hundred and twenty-four for every English square mile; and as there are compara-

* M. M. David-Tury de Lissabon, and J. L. de Pourtalès.

tively very few mendicants or paupers, a better proof of the prosperity of the country cannot be adduced. Erfurt is the only government in the Prussian dominions that can be compared to Neuchatel in point of population.

Causes of prosperity.

To what causes can the wealth and activity that prevail in this canton, be attributed? Is it to that turn of mind, which leads the inhabitants to examine and discuss every subject connected with their rights, and which made them adopt by a plurality of voices, the reformation preached to them by Farel?[r] It may be remarked that Lauderen and Cressien are the only catholic parishes in the country. Can it result from the civil and religious liberty they enjoy, or from the circumstance of the canton not having been invaded by any hostile force for several centuries, or lastly, from the inhabitants being exempt from every onerous tax, impost and contribution? It cannot be denied that so many and so great advantages have contributed to produce that emulation, which is the best security against the corruption of the people, that love of labour and desire of freedom, by which the diffusion of knowledge is promoted, and that spirit of union by which those engaged in the same pursuits are bound together.

Language.

The sudden conversion of the inhabitants was in a great measure owing to Farel being a Frenchman, for the French is the only language generally understood in the country.

Government.

The canton of Neuchatel, although it forms a part of the Swiss confederation, acknowledges as its sovereign the king of Prussia, whose influence, it must be admitted, is very inconsiderable. When Mary of Orleans, wife to Henry of Savoy, duke of Nemours, and sister to the last heir of the house of Longueville, the reigning family in the principality, died without issue in 1707, many claimants to the title of prince of Neuchatel, repaired or sent their representatives to the sovereign court in the country. Frederick the First of Prussia was elected as the nearest heir to the family of Chalons, of which the ancient counts of Neuchatel were vassals.

Liberty.

But not an article in consequence of his election, was changed in the treaty of Westphalia, by which the independence of the different states that composed the Helvetic confederation was secured. Neuchatel enjoyed its privileges, and retained them even when it was bestowed on a French marshal by the imperial government in 1807, and at a later period, after it was ceded to Prussia by the congress of Vienna. The king of Prussia receives only the revenue of some domains, and a very moderate land-tax, that cannot be augmented. The inhabitants who choose the military profession, may enter into the service of any state, provided it be not at war with Prussia, for the king is prince of Neuchatel; it is certain that there are comparatively very few of the people in the Prussian army. No customs are levied, no duties are imposed on any goods that enter or leave the territory. Every profession and every trade are free; so vigilant have the inhabitants been in defending their rights, that justice is not administered in the name of the prince, and neither he nor his deputy, who represents him, can prosecute criminals, although the one or the other may save the life of a condemned person, or commute his punishment.

General remarks.

We have now completed the account of the provinces, which, on both banks of the Rhine, and in the mountainous countries where the Doubs takes its source, are governed by the descendants of Frederick the Great. When that prince made himself master of Silesia, when, availing himself of the troubles that agitated Poland, he enlarged his dominions at the expense of that unjustly dismembered state, what

[r] See Musée des Protestans célèbres, tom. II. Iere. partie. (Notice sur Farel.)

would he have said, had it been announced to him that thirty years afterwards, his successor was to experience all the calamities of war, and a great portion of his dominions was to be ceded to an ambitious conqueror; that at a later period the kingdom was to be extended beyond its ancient limits, and the prince reinstated by the kings, his allies? The mind of Frederick might have been elated at the prospect of the future greatness of his country. But it is necessary to examine the additions made to the kingdom, and to consider its resources. It forms a considerable extent from the banks of the Niemen to those of the Elbe, from the sources of the Oder to the shores of the Baltic—the centre of its power,—the kingdom of Prussia proper. But if the conquests made by Frederick the Second, some portions detached from Poland, and the provinces taken from Saxony by the last treaties, be added, does it follow that the power of Prussia has been much increased? Many reasons might induce us to think otherwise; it cannot be denied that the preponderance of Prussia over the Germanic confederation is now greater than it ever was at any former period. But Russia, her most formidable neighbour, has been increased in the same manner; she may either therefore be in some sort dependent on that colossal empire, or unite her destinies with those of Austria, and have to dread the armed hordes that may inundate the west from the countries in the north. The possessions of Prussia on the Rhine, however important they may be in point of commercial wealth, do not augment its power in proportion to their population. It must be long before the people in these countries can forget that they are not Prussians. Their commerce has been so much injured since they were separated from France, that all of them regret the separation.

If the tranquillity of Europe be again disturbed by any political commotion, if France in particular take an active part in the struggle that might ensue, Prussia, obliged to divide its forces in order to keep in obedience the remote and scattered countries within its dominions, could no longer calculate on the heroic energy its inhabitants displayed in the wars against Napoleon, because it refused those institutions and improvements, suited to the spirit of the age, and promised and claimed by the enlightened part of the population. Prussia might then exhibit the spectacle of a body weakened by a too rapid growth, and be unable to maintain herself in the menacing attitude, that might be expected from the extent of her territory. It has been already seen that the canton of Neuchatel is politically of no use to the Prussian monarchy, neither can the influence which it possesses in that part of Swisserland, be considered of any advantage, or at all events, if any can accrue, it can be only to its commerce. But if we reflect that all the provinces subject to Prussia, extending from east to west from the banks of the Niemen to those of the Sarre, are not much less than eight hundred miles in length, and equal to three hundred and twenty-five at their greatest breadth from south to north, while at their mean breadth, they are not more than a hundred; if, besides, it be considered that several foreign princes, such as the duke of Saxony, the prince of Schwartzburg, and the prince of Lippe, possess more or less extensive territories surrounded by Prussian states, that some parts of the same monarchy, as the territories of Rahnis, Suhl and Wetzlar, are situated in the midst of other foreign possessions, it may be concluded that a country elongated out of all proportion, and irregularly intersected, that remote and scattered lands unequally arranged in relation to the influence which ought to emanate from the capital to the other parts of the kingdom, and lastly, that a surface so considerable as that of Prussia, which is equal to more than eighty-two thousand eight hundred square miles, are rather to be considered the elements of weakness than of power.

BOOK CXXI.

EUROPE.

Germany—Fifth Section—Kingdom and Dutchies of Saxony; Electorate of Hesse, Great Dutchies of Hesse-Homburg and Hesse-Darmstadt; Principalities of Lippe-Detmold and Lippe-Schaumburg, Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt and Reuss; Dutchies of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Cœthen and Brunswick; Principalities of Waldeck and Nassau.

The country that we are about to enter, forms part of central Germany. It might be difficult to describe it uniformly, from its many political divisions; in order, therefore, to avoid the confusion that might arise, if we attempted to give an account of the different contiguous principalities, it may be better to arrange all the twenty-one states that form the country, into divisions comprising the territories of the different princes that are related to each other by consanguinity or family connexions.

We shall proceed then in the following order;—the kingdom and the dutchies of Saxony; Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Homburg and Hesse-Darmstadt; the principalities of Lippe-Detmold and Lippe-Schaumburg; those of Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, and Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt; the principality of Reuss; the dutchies of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg and Anhalt-Cœthen; lastly, the dutchy of Brunswick, the principalities of Waldeck and Nassau.

Ancient Inhabitants.

Although the limits of the country possessed by the early inhabitants, cannot be made to correspond with the limits of the dutchies and principalities, into which this portion of central Germany has been divided, it is not less necessary to make some remarks on its ancient population. They formed seven principal tribes, the *Cherusci*, the *Chassuarii*, the *Chatti*, the *Sedusii*, the *Sorabi*, the *Suevi*, and the *Venedi*.

The Cherusci.

The two banks of the Weser within the confines of the territory that now forms the principality of Lippe-Detmold, together with some dependencies on electoral Hesse-Cassel, were in ancient times inhabited by the Cherusci and Chassuarii. No people in ancient Germany, says M. Wilhelm, have maintained their independence with more courage, and acquired greater renown in the wars against Rome, than the Cherusci.[g] It was the same people that contributed most to the defeat of Varus, but upon them, as Strabo informs us, the signal vengeance of Germanicus fell.[h] They were defeated by him, and among the persons that followed in his triumphal entry, were Semiguntus, the chief of the Cherusci, and Thusnelda, his sister, the wife of Hermann or Arminius their general, who had cut in pieces the three Roman legions.

Chassuarii.

The Chassuarii or Chasuari, as Tacitus calls them, or the *Attuarii*, according to Ammianus Marcellinus,[i] were a wandering and warlike people, that often ravaged the frontiers of the Gauls, before they were subdued by Julian.

Chatti.

It appears, from what Tacitus[k] says of the Chatti or Catti, that they inhabited the country between the banks of the Ohm, a feeder of the Fulda, and those of the upper Elbe; in other words, Electoral Hesse, the dutchy of Saxe-Weimar, and a part of the kingdom of Saxony.[l] According to Pliny, the nation of the Hermiones was made up

[g] Germanien und seine Bewohner nach-den Quellen dargestellt, p. 190. [h] Liber. VII. cap. ii. sect. 4. [i] Book XX. ch. 10. [k] De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 30 and 31. [l] Libr. IV. cap. xiv.

of the Cherusci, the Suevi and Hermunduri. It may be worth while to mention the account given of them by Tacitus.

Account of the Catti by Tacitus.

The Catti were distinguished from the other Germans by their strong and muscular limbs, their warlike appearance, their courage and intelligence. Educated to war, judicious in the choice of their chiefs, zealous in obeying them, making it a point of honour to maintain their ranks, skilled in avoiding the snares of their enemies, ready to avail themselves of favourable opportunities, they defied the inconstancy of fortune and confided in their courage. Their whole strength consisted in their infantry. The other Germans, says the historian, knew how to fight, the Catti knew how to make war. As soon as they arrived at the age of manhood, every man allowed his hair and beard to grow until he had slain an enemy on the field of battle. The bravest amongst them wore an iron ring, a badge of ignominy and slavery, which was not taken off before they had vanquished a foe. Careless of wealth, prodigal of what belonged to others, their time was not spent in cultivating the land, building houses, or enclosing fields.

Sedusii, Sorabi, and Suevi.

The Sedusii inhabited the country between the Rhine and the Maine, that forms part of the great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt; they entered the coalition, which, under the command of Ariovistus, resisted the arms of Cæsar. The Sorabi possessed part of Saxony; the Suevi extended from the banks of the Elbe to those of the Oder; they had, therefore, more than a third of the kingdom of Saxony; but it is difficult to determine the limits of their territory, both because they were a wandering people, and because the ancients designated by the name of Suevi, different nations of a common origin. Tacitus says they were distinguished by their hair being bound and knotted on the crown of their heads.[1] Strabo mentions that they inhabited the lands from the Rhine to the country beyond the Elbe;[m] Ptolemy places the *Longobardi*, *Suevi*, *Angli*, and *Semnones* in the same region.

When the intercourse between the Romans and the Suevi became more frequent, it was found that they were not so numerous as had been supposed, for those who were formerly confounded under that general denomination were better known, and made themselves at last formidable to the Roman power. The Suevi extended their territory on the Rhine in the fifth century; and the lands in Saxony, on the right bank of the Elbe, were about the same time occupied by the Venedi or Wendes.

Saxons.

It was the descendants of the Catti and Suevi, who, under the name of Saxons, acquired in the middle ages so much reputation in war. They resisted during several centuries the kings of France, who, during the reign of Clovis, and a long time afterwards, were the most powerful princes in Europe. Hengis, a Saxon king that flourished in the fifth century, having collected some hordes from the banks of the Weser, sailed into England, and took possession of the island. They invaded Spain in the year 409, under the command of their prince Hermeric. Having made themselves masters of part of Belgium, in the sixth century, they carried on a long and tedious war against Thierry, Clotaire I. and Clotaire II., and continued in possession of that country. Charles Martel made war against them during twenty years, Pepin during ten, and Charlemagne was unable to subdue them until after a struggle that lasted thirty-two years.

Kingdom of Saxony.

Part of the country that belonged to the same people, forms at present the kingdom of Saxony, formerly a dutchy and electorate, now raised into a kingdom, which was founded about twenty years ago by Napoleon. Its territory was greatly diminished in consequence of the resolutions passed at the congress of Vienna in 1815. The surface

[1] Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 38. [m] Liber. VIII.

of the kingdom is little more than five thousand six hundred and forty square miles. It is bounded on the north and the east by Prussia, on the south by Bohemia and Bavaria, and on the west by Prussia and the dutchies of Saxony. Its greatest length from east to west is about a hundred and twenty-five miles, and its greatest breadth from south to north nearly eighty.

The southern part of the kingdom is formed by the branches and declivities of a mountainous chain, the Erz-Gebirge or Hartz-Wald, that extends eastwards to another range, the Riesen-Gebirge. A line drawn at a short distance below the summit of the Erz-Gebirge, may be considered the natural limits of Saxony, which are contiguous to those of Bohemia. It is hardly necessary to take notice of the analogy that subsists between the names of Hartz-Wald or Erz-Gebirge, and the country of the Hartz that has been already mentioned, for it is well known that it formed a considerable portion of the vast Hercynian forest that was so celebrated in ancient times. The chain of the Erz-Gebirge is no where very lofty; the Schneekopf, or Snow-head, the most elevated summit, is not higher than three thousand five hundred feet above the level of the sea; the others are Mount Auers, which is about three thousand two hundred and fifty, the Laufche, about two thousand six hundred, the Drechsler, about two thousand five hundred and twenty, the Gochwald, about two thousand four hundred and seventy, and the Guthhaus, which rises to the height of two thousand three hundred and forty feet. | Soil.

These mountains are in general composed of granite, and the greater number of them are covered with gneiss. M. Leonhard,[a] who observed that the western declivities are for the most part steeper than the eastern, informs us that towards the south-west, as well as in the opposite direction, or in the neighbourhood of Frieberg, they appear to rest on an immense base of granite. But at their eastern extremity, the granite is covered with rocks of a more recent formation, such as compact limestone and strata of sandstone or *psammites*. In other parts of the chain, the granite rests on talc, mixed with beds of schistus, with which it is in some places covered, and which in others serve as a support for the gneiss. Thus the Erz-Gebirge, like many other chains, are composed of granite that appears to belong to different epochs. Micaceous schistus fills up a large space in the centre of the chain, and extends to the western extremity; it rises to the summits, and forms the top of the Schneekopf. That rock, which has been called *pegmatites*, and which is composed of quartz and feldspath, forms, according to the observations of M. Bonnard, a distinct group.[b] Lastly, hills of sandstone are situated at the eastern extremity. M. Daubuisson observed on the Saxon mountains basalt that did not appear to him to be of volcanic origin.[c] It would follow, therefore, that the name by which they are known in Saxony, is inapplicable; but that geologist has of late modified his opinion on the object. | Geological structure.

A porphyritic rock descends below the mountains, and it contains anthracites, a combustible substance, which may be seen in the neighbourhood of Lischwitz and Frauenstein. The coal formation extends in the country between Schneeberg and Planitz, and some schistous rocks that have been observed on the plains adjoining Leipsic, descend from the Erz-Gebirge, sink below the ground, and are covered with porphyry, that assumes the form of isolated heights, the bases of which are surrounded with the sand and argil on the plains. | Anthracites.

The Erz-Gebirge abound so much in metals of different kinds, that they have been correctly denominated the *Metallic Mountains*. The working of the mines furnishes employment to a numerous population. The art of the miner is best understood in this part of Germany, indeed it has been there changed into a science by the labours and | Mines.

[a] Charakteristik der Felsarten. [b] Essai géognostique sur l'Erz-Gebirge, 1816.
[c] See Journal de physique, tom. LVIII.

discoveries of distinguished men. It was at Freyberg that the celebrated Werner founded a Geological chair, an individual to whom the science was so much indebted, that before his time it might have been called a chaos, or at best the art of making systems to which their authors gave the pompous title of theories of the earth.

Climate. The climate in the kingdom of Saxony is dry and temperate, the mountainous region is only exposed to severe winters; one may travel in a sledge in the high country a long time after the snow has disappeared on the low grounds. It is stated in the work of M. Engelhardt, that wheat, oats and potatoes begin to thrive in the mountainous districts, while asparagus is ripe on the plains.[q] The temperature is mildest in the neighbourhood of Leipsic and in the lowest parts of the kingdom. It might be proved that the climate is salubrious from the fact that the number of deaths is not so great as in neighbouring countries, and from the number of persons who have arrived at an advanced period of life.

Agricultural produce. The people engaged in agriculture are intelligent, the land is of a good quality, and the produce must necessarily be considerable. The breed of sheep has been greatly improved, numerous flocks are reared, and their wool, which is much prized, forms an important branch of commerce. Several agricultural societies have been established, and by their means the breed of horned cattle and horses, and even the rearing of bees, are encouraged. To improve the culture of vineyards is the principal object of other societies of the same nature. The wine is of a good quality, but the quantity is not sufficient for the consumption. The grain harvests are also inadequate, but the deficiency is by many supplied with potatoes, a plant for which the country is well adapted. Esculent vegetables and fruits are abundant, and in some districts, hemp, lint, hops and tobacco yield good harvests.

Produce of the mines. The mineral productions of the country are much more important than those of its fruitful soil. The raw material, on which it is necessary to add the expense of working, has been calculated to be worth £291,660. The mines of Ausbringen are supposed to make up £102,083 of this sum, and those of Freyberg £15,000; the other useful metals, worked in the neighbourhood of the same town, are not less abundant. The quantity of fine silver annually obtained from its mines, is estimated at £116,700. It has been computed that nine thousand workmen extract every year, three hundred quintals of copper, eighty thousand of iron, ten thousand of lead, two thousand five hundred of tin, and more than five thousand of arsenic. The numerous workmen collect annually, according to Stein, nearly one million two hundred thousand quintals of sulphur, alum and nitrate of potash. The same chain abounds in white quartz, amethysts, agates, jaspers, garnets and kaolin, to the fine quality of which must be attributed the superiority that the Saxon porcelain has long maintained over every other in Europe. Lastly, several extensive coal mines are worked in the Saxon territory, but the most important are those in the neighbourhood of Dresden, from which an annual revenue of £50,000 is derived.

Industry. Manufactures. The Saxon manufacturers are not destitute of activity or zeal, they have made several improvements by which the produce of their industry has been increased. Among the different articles that are manufactured, linen, silk, cotton and woollen stuffs might be specified, the others are lace, ribands and muslin, straw and paper hats, and musical instruments; its porcelain and earthenware are considered the finest in Europe. A great number of hands are constantly employed; it was calculated a few years ago that more than eight hundred thousand

[q] Handbuch der Erdbeschreibung des Koenigreichs Sachsen.

individuals were occupied in making these different articles. Twenty-five thousand were engaged in manufacturing cloth, five thousand in making straw hats, fifty thousand in working metal, and in cotton spinning alone, nearly four hundred thousand.

The perfection attained in manufacturing different articles, cannot be wholly ascribed to the industry and intelligence natural to the Saxon nation. Government has for more than twenty years used every means to assist the efforts of the people. Premiums and rewards are not only bestowed on the inventors of useful machines, but medals and sums of money are given to the most able workmen. Societies have been instituted with a considerable capital at their disposal, and it is employed in accomplishing these ends. These societies offer rewards for the solution of such questions as may tend to make manufacturers and agriculturists more enlightened concerning their own interest. It has even been proposed to attain such an object that some imposts and duties should be abolished. | Societies.

The trade of Saxony is very extensive, and it is not less certain that by the judicious measures of government, a great impulsion has been given to commerce. Stein calculates the value of the whole inland trade to amount to 22,000,000 of rix dollars, or £2,700,000. The capital circulated in the three great fairs that are held in Leipsic, is not supposed to be less than 18,000,000 of rix dollars, or £4,050,000. A considerable revenue was formerly obtained from the salt mines, but as the territory in which they are situated, was taken from Saxony by a decision of the congress at Vienna, it has been stipulated that Prussia, which is at present in possession of the country, shall deliver annually 2500 quintals of salt at a price sufficiently moderate to enable the Saxon government by this monopoly, and without raising the duty, to derive the same revenue that it possessed before the treaty of 1815. | Commerce.

The government of Saxony is monarchical, the king is major at eighteen years of age; and every office, whether it be civil or military, is filled up by the sovereign. But all the nobles in the kingdom are not equally subject to the prince; several lords levy contributions within their domains, a third part of which can only be claimed by government. The states are partly formed by the deputies whom the provinces appoint, but the sovereign only can dissolve and call them together. It generally happens, however, that they assemble at Dresden every six years. The states are composed of three orders; the clergy, nobility, and members deputed by towns. They regulate the taxes and imposts, and deliberate on the laws that the king submits for their decision. | Government.

The revenue of Saxony amounts to 11,000,000 of florins, and the national debt in 1820, was not more than 32,000,000. | Revenue.

The army is composed of a regiment of guards, three of infantry, one of cavalry, one of foot artillery, two brigades of horse artillery, a battalion of light horsemen, and two companies of veterans. The total force amounts to 13,300 men, and the contingent of the king to the Germanic confederation, to 12,000. Every man from eighteen to thirty-one years of age may be liable to the military service, but many pleas of exemption are urged and sustained. The towns possess national guards, consisting of all the citizens who can afford to equip themselves; none are exempt from the service before the age of sixty. Patrols of horse police are stationed on the principal roads in the kingdom. | Army.

The German spoken in Saxony, is said to be more pure and correct than in any other part of Germany. Almost all the Saxons adhere to the confession of Augsburg, that was drawn up in the sixteenth century; their electors defended and established the reformation which Luther preached. But since the time of Frederick Augustus, who embraced catholicism in 1697, in order to make himself eligible for the | Language, religion.

crown of Poland, the reigning family has continued faithful to that form of worship.

Population. It appears from the work of M. Hassel,[r] that the population amounted to 1,386,000 individuals in the year 1822; M. Engelhardt supposes the number of inhabitants equal to 1,400,000.[s] If the mean be taken between these two numbers, the population may be estimated at 1,393,400 persons, and the number to every square mile at 250. This wealthy country contains three thousand one hundred and ninety-seven villages, fifty-seven burghs, and a hundred and forty-five towns, the most important of which, we shall endeavour to describe.

Dresden. The country near the capital, along the right bank of the Elbe is likely to attract the notice of a stranger; he may admire the wealth of the environs, the variety of picturesque sites, the breadth and cleanness of the streets in the suburbs, and the length of the magnificent bridge across the river. That bridge, built of sand-stone, is formed by sixteen arches; it is four hundred and seventy-four yards in length, and twelve in breadth. Benches are placed at different distances, and near the twelfth pillar, a gilded crucifix is supported on a solid rock thirty feet in height. The fourth pillar was sprung by Marshal Davoust on the 19th of March, 1813, in order that he might be better able to secure the retreat of his troops; but the bridge has been repaired since 1815. The lofty fortifications in Dresden were changed into fine walks in 1810, and three years afterwards new ramparts were constructed by the French, to protect themselves against the allied armies. These ramparts have also been demolished. Dresden is divided into the Old and New Town and three suburbs, the largest of which are Neustadt and Friedrichstadt. Sixteen of its eighteen churches belong to the protestants. *Frauen Kirche* (Women's church,) built after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, is situated in the Old Town; the light pillars on the roof support a tower that rises to the height of three hundred and forty feet. Sophia's church, or the church of the court, is remarkable for the sculptures that adorn its portal, for the pictures with which it is decorated, and also for a number of pillars that surround the altar; they are said to have been taken from the temple at Jerusalem; it is pretended that they were brought to Dresden from the holy city by Duke Albert in 1476.

Other buildings. The finest buildings in Dresden are the chancery, the treasury, the mint, the arsenal, the townhouse, the Japonese palace, the royal palace, and that of the princes Maximilian and Antony. The king's palace is a large building of irregular architecture, adorned with many turrets, the highest of which is not less than three hundred feet above the ground. The exterior of the palace corresponds but ill with the valuable collections contained in it.

Taken by Frederick. When Frederick the Second of Prussia entered the electorate, after having declared to Frederick Augustus, king of Poland, and elector of Saxony, that the measure was necessary for his own safety, and the most rigid discipline was to be observed by his troops; the elector fled to his army at Pirna, but the queen his wife, possessing a degree of firmness and courage beyond what could be expected from her sex, refused to accompany him, and waited the arrival of the Prussians. In the mean time Ferdinand of Brunswick entered and plundered Leipsic, and Frederick arrived at Dresden. Having demanded certain archives from the queen, she refused to give them up; his soldiers then advanced into the *royal palace*, broke open the doors, and carried away the archives, but after a strict search for a treaty of offensive alliance between Russia, Austria and Saxony against Prussia, that had served as a pretext for

[r] Statische umriss, page 68.

[s] Handbuch der Erdbeschreibung des Koenigreichs Sachsen.

Frederick's invasion, the treaty was not found. The hall of the great opera, which is contiguous to the king's palace, although finely decorated, is more worthy of notice from its size; it may contain eight thousand spectators. The view from the palace of Brühl, is perhaps the finest near Dresden, and the gallery of paintings in the same palace, is supposed to be the most valuable of any in the town. There are not fewer than five hospitals, besides one for orphans, and another for foundlings. Many places of education might be enumerated, among others two gymnasia, a school that is reserved for the daughters of catholics, several others, such as the one for cadets, another for the royal pages, and a third for engineers; in addition to these, may be mentioned a school of medicine and surgery, and five charitable institutions for the education of the poor. Different societies have been established, some of which are devoted to the encouragement of the arts and sciences. A number of antiquities and medals, and three libraries, have been collected for the use of the inhabitants; but the most valuable library is the one that belongs to the king, it contains two hundred and fifty thousand volumes, four thousand manuscripts, and twenty thousand geographical maps. The population of Dresden is equal to 52,000 individuals, and the course of the Elbe is favourable to their commerce and industry.

Leipsig or Leipsick, is, after the capital, the most important town in Saxony. It is advantageously situated in a fertile plain at the confluence of the Elster, the Parde and the Lappe; so much wealth has been diffused by its commerce, so much have enjoyments and luxuries increased, that the rich prefer it as a place of residence to Dresden. Much of the ground in the neighbourhood is laid out in public walks; the most frequented are the wood of Rosenthal, the garden of Hendel, Gehlis and its vicinity. These places were laid waste by hostile troops, but they have been embellished and improved since that period; no evils are irreparable, where commerce and industry exert their beneficent influence. It may be remarked, however, that the different spectacles, shows, and other places of amusement in these public walks, form a singular contrast with some monuments of wo. The tomb of the fabulist Gelert is situated in the garden of Resch, the philosopher Gallisch was buried in the gardens of Hendel, and the grave of Poniatowski, who died like a hero, after having witnessed the allies of the French turn their arms against each other, is still to be seen in the groves of Reichenbach. | Leipsig.

The public places that are resorted to in winter, are, the national theatre, the musical academy, the casinos, the winter gardens of Breiter, and different societies, which have been called *Resources*. If the streets in Leipsig were broader, it might bear a comparison with the well-built towns in Germany. The principal edifices are the townhouse and the mint, the much admired hospital founded by Georges, and another for the education of orphans. The church of St. Nicholas may be mentioned on account of its marble ornaments, and some paintings by Oeser; but that of St. Thomas is perhaps better known from the number and excellence of its organs. The castle of Pleisenburg, a building that resembles the citadel at Milan, is all that remains of Leipsig's ancient fortifications; it contains a church, in which the principal turret serves as an observatory, and also what one would not expect to find in an old fortress, a good chemical laboratory, and an academy of architecture and painting. Leipsig has possessed a university since the year 1409; its different schools are well attended, its scientific society has obtained merited reputation, its museum is valuable from its models and machines; in short, its botanical garden, collections and libraries, are worthy of a town, that unites much commercial wealth and many varied branches of industry with the greatest book trade in the world. | Theatres, &c.

Chemnitz. The small town of Chemnitz or Alt-Chemnitz, situated on a river of the same name, is perhaps more agreeable and better built than any other in Saxony; its population is estimated by Hassel at 16,000 inhabitants. It may be remarked that it was the birth-place of Puffendorf; it is unnecessary to describe its six churches, its college and four hospitals, the triple wall that surrounds it, and the ancient castle by which it was formerly defended. Plauen contains a population of six thousand souls, and possesses, like Chemnitz, a trade in linen, muslins and calicoes.

Plauen.

Freiberg. Freiberg ought to be more minutely described, its important territory has been already mentioned in the account of the Saxon mines; it is watered by the Fulda, and situated at an elevation of twelve hundred feet above the level of the sea. It has the appearance of an ancient city, from the number of its old buildings, but several streets are broad and straight, and there are many well built houses. The tombs of some ancient Saxon electors are to be seen in the cathedral, the finest of its six churches. A valuable collection of ancient armour is arranged in the townhouse, a gymnasium and library have been established for the use of the inhabitants; but the celebrity of Freiberg depends on the school of the mines, an institution that might serve as a model for others of the same sort; many distinguished men have been educated there, since the time the collections were increased, and the method of teaching improved by Werner. The baths of Halsbruck in the neighbourhood of Freiberg, are much frequented, their salutary effect in different diseases has been generally acknowledged. The number of villages in the vicinity, and the situation of Freiberg in a mountainous country, peopled by miners, whose manners are very different from those of the inhabitants in other parts of Saxony, render it interesting to strangers.

Koenigstein. But if a painter or a naturalist wish to travel through a country that may amply reward them for their labour, they must go from Freiberg to Koenigstein and Schandau, two small towns in which the population is insignificant, but both of them are surrounded by the most romantic scenery. The first was made impregnable by the late king. It is built on a rock about eighteen feet above the course of the Elbe; a well not less than eleven hundred feet deep, supplies the inhabitants at all times with cold and limpid water. The second, or Schandau, stands on the banks of the Elbe, and is encompassed with mountains and rocks, which rise in the form of an amphitheatre. Its harbour is enlivened by an active trade, and many visiters repair every year to the mineral springs in the vicinity.

Zittau. Zittau is built near the eastern extremity of Saxony, in a fertile valley, on the banks of the Mandau or Alterwasser. It contains about eight thousand inhabitants; its trade consists in cloth and also in white and printed linens. It possesses a gymnasium, a normal school, a museum of natural history, a collection of medals, five hospitals, one of which is reserved for orphans. If the church of St. John were wholly built, it might be the finest in the town, but a long time may elapse before it be finished. Those who leave the town by the Bohemian gate, arrive after a short journey at the village of Herrnhut, which is peopled by four hundred individuals, all of whom belong to the sect of Moravian brothers; they have their pastor and their church.

Bautzen. Bautzen or Budissin, the last town that we have to describe in the kingdom of Saxony, is situated on a rock that commands the banks of the Spree. An extensive commerce and numerous manufactories render it a place of some importance. It is peopled by 11,600 inhabitants; the fortifications, which are now almost in ruins, attest its antiquity, although its straight and well built streets give it the appearance of a modern town; the cause of these improvements has been attri-

buted to fires, by which the old houses were at different periods destroyed. The theatre and a house of correction are perhaps the finest buildings; the places of instruction are an academy and gymnasium. The town is one of a small number, which affords an example of religious toleration, that we would wish to see every where imitated. The church of St. Peter is divided into two parts by an iron trellis, one part is reserved for the Catholics, and the other for the Lutherans. The hill of Protschen is situated on the left bank of the Spree, at a short distance from Bautzen. The ruins of an ancient altar still remain there; it was supposed to be the place where the gods of the Wendes used to deliver their oracles. The old castle and the fortifications which served to defend the town, are believed to have been built during the ninth century; no mention, however, is made of Bautzen in history before the year 1078. But it has become famous in the annals of war from the successful struggle which the French army made in 1813 against the allied powers.

Dutchies of Saxony.

The two principal divisions of Ducal Saxony are Weimar and Gotha. The first and the second, which was subdivided into several parts, formed some years ago five principalities of unequal extent. The surface of the first, or the great dutchy of Saxe-Weimar is not less than one thousand and ninety-two square miles; the dutchy of Saxe-Gotha was equal to nine hundred and six; that of Saxe-Meiningen to two hundred and ninety-four; Saxe-Hildburghausen to a hundred and seventy-four; Saxe-Coburg to three hundred and seventy-eight. But the limits and names of the three last dutchies were changed after the death of the Duke of Saxe-Gotha in 1825. The territories of Meiningen, Hildburghausen and Saalfeld make up at present the dutchy of Saxe-Meiningen; its superficial extent may be upwards of seven hundred and twenty square miles, and the population amounts to a hundred and twenty-eight thousand inhabitants. The dutchies of Altenburg, Ronneburg and Eisenburg, that formed part of Saxe-Gotha, are now denominated Saxe-Altenburg; its surface is equal to four hundred and fourteen square miles, and its population to a hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants. Lastly, the territory of Saxe-Coburg, with the territories of Ohrdruff, Goth and St. Wendel on the left bank of the Rhine, make up the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, which is about seven hundred and sixty-two square miles in extent, and contains one hundred and thirty-nine thousand inhabitants.[1]

Saxe-Weimar.

The great dutchy of Saxe-Weimar is peopled by two hundred and five thousand individuals, including about a hundred and eighty-seven thousand five hundred Lutherans, six thousand three hundred Calvinists, ten thousand Catholics, and twelve hundred Jews. They inhabit thirty small towns, twelve burghs and five hundred and eighty-six villages. The territory has been divided into two provinces or principalities, those of Weimar and Eisnach. The first is situated between the Prussian province of Saxony; the principalities of Schwartzburg, Reuss and Rudolstadt; the second between the possessions of Prussia, the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, the electorate of Hesse, and Bavaria.

Soil.

The land in the principality of Weimar belongs to the secondary formation. White and ferruginous sandstone are observed, and the limestone is similar to that on the chain of Jura. Some hills extend from north-east to south-west, and join the range of Thuringerwald; the rest of the country consists of extensive plains and thick forests. The soil in most places is rich and fruitful. The land in the principality of Eisnach is of the same sort as that in Weimar; sandstone, slate, marble and coal are found in the country; but there are some ex-

[1] We are indebted for these details concerning the limits and population of the three dutchies to M. Balbi, who communicated to us part of the manuscript of his work entitled, *Balance Politique du Globe.*

tinguished volcanos on the banks of the Werra, that are connected with a group which extends on the left bank of the Rhine. Different metals, such as silver, copper and iron, may be observed in the same part of the country.

Towns. The principal towns in the great dutchy of Saxony are Weimar, Apolda, Jena, and Eisnach. They may be shortly described, for none of them are very large. Weimar, situated on the Ilm, contains 9000 inhabitants. In the principal church are the tombs of the princes and princesses of the ducal family, and that of the painter Cranach; the nave of the same church is adorned by some of his paintings. The town possesses several public schools, a college, an academy of painting, and some charitable institutions. The palace of the prince has been considered the finest edifice; the interior may be mentioned on account of its rich furniture and valuable collections, which consist of armour, medals, and paintings. The park before the palace is laid out after the English manner, and it has been more admired than any other in Germany.

Neighbourhood. The romantic country seat of Belvedere, in the neighbourhood of Weimar, belongs likewise to the prince. A school of agriculture has been established at Tieffurth; the fine gardens of the late dutchess dowager, in the same part of the country, are still kept with great care; monuments have been erected there to the memory of the princes Constantine of Weimar, and Leopold of Brunswick. The grave of the celebrated Wieland is to be seen at Osmannstedt. A mineral spring that has been of late much frequented, is situated at Berka, a village about six miles from Weimar.

Apolda Jena. Apolda is peopled by 300 individuals, and its trade consists chiefly in cloth. Jena, which contains 5000 inhabitants, holds a distinguished rank among the collegiate towns in Germany. Several libraries, a museum of natural history, a theatre of anatomy, and clinical lectures, are open to those who attend the university. The different learned and scientific societies, as well as the literary gazette published at Jena, tend to diffuse a taste for study. The town is built on the Saale; the memorable battle which bears its name, was fought in the neighbourhood on the 14th of October 1806.

Eisnach. Eisnach is agreeably situated on a height that commands the Nesse; it is surrounded by walls, and possesses a ducal castle, a mint, two public schools, and several charitable institutions. It contains 8000 inhabitants; it was founded in the year 1070.

Dependencies. Different districts attached to the principality of Eisnach are situated in Bavaria, Saxe-Meiningen and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; but all of them are so small as to render any mention of them unnecessary. The same may be said of another district dependent on the circle of Jena, and situated in the Prussian province of Saxony. The only town in it is Alstedt, which may contain about 1900 inhabitants.

Industry. An extensive commerce is carried on in the dutchy of Saxe-Weimar. More than a hundred thousand pieces of woollen stuffs are annually manufactured at Eisnach. The trade of Jena and Apolda consists in the same articles, and Kaltensundheim is peopled by weavers. There are upwards of forty potters at Burgel, and a still greater number of workmen, that find employment at the vinegar distilleries in the same place. Weimar is noted for its leather, Stutzerbach for its glass and paper, and Ilmenau for its porcelain and hardware.

Revenue. Army. The revenue of the great dutchy amounts to the sum of 1,800,000 florins or 180,000*l.*, and the public debt is equal to 6,296,000 florins, or 629,600*l.*; a sinking fund has been established for its liquidation. The armed force consists of two foot regiments and a company of cavalry; but the inhabitants rose in mass in 1814, and an army of eighteen thousand men was collected.

The subjects of the great duke of Saxe-Weimar are indebted to him for the advantages of a representative government. According to the constitution of 1816, each district appoints a deputy. Ten are chosen from the class of burgesses, and as many from the rural districts. Every citizen of Weimar or Eisnach, who possesses an income of 500 rix-dollars or 75*l.*, and in the other towns, every burgess, whose income amounts to 300 rix-dollars or 45*l.*, may be elected a deputy. A proprietor, whose land is worth 2000 rix-dollars or 300*l.*, may be deputed by the district. No one can be deprived of his elective privileges on account of his birth, rank or religion. The deputies are elected for six years, the elections are public; persons in authority are not permitted to solicit suffrages for candidates. The assembly of deputies names counsellors for life, who are entitled to sit amongst them, and to give their votes. An assembly must be summoned at the lapse of three years after its dissolution; but a commission composed of two deputies and a *marshal* or chief of a district, who is chosen by the deputies, watches constantly over the public interest. The assembly, together with the prince and his ministers, fixes the budgets, establishes or abolishes taxes and imposts. It has the right of communicating its opinions to the prince on whatever relates to the wants and necessities of the people, individual liberty and the protection of property. If a law be proposed by the assembly, and rejected by the prince, the same proposition may again be made at two other meetings. But if the prince proposes a law, the assembly cannot reject it without assigning the reasons of their refusal. Lastly, it appears from a judgment of the court of appeal at Jena, and from the representations made to the assembly by the people, that if a law be sanctioned by the different powers in the state, and not put into execution, the districts may claim redress from the Germanic confederation. Such are the elements to which this small state owes its prosperity; it might be well if its constitution were studied by the legislators of more powerful kingdoms. | Government.

The revenue of the dutchy of Saxe-Meiningen may amount to 70,834*l.*; the number of troops is equal to eleven hundred men. A great part of the soil is mountainous and well wooded, it abounds in metals, salt and coal. A branch connected with the chain of Rhœne-Gebirge extends along the country. Its principal towns are Meiningen, Hildburghausen and Saalfeld. A lucrative trade is carried on in these towns and in several villages; it consists in iron, glass, paper and different manufactures. The capital, of which the population may be equal to 4500 inhabitants, is surrounded by mountains and situated on the Werra. The useful institutions are a college and orphan hospital; the public buildings are a church, the ducal palace, and the chamber of the states. Its trade consists chiefly in cotton and fustians. Hildburghausen, a small town of 3500 inhabitants, is also watered by the Werra. A monument has been erected to the memory of the young prince Lewis Ferdinand of Prussia, near Saalfeld, at the very place where he was killed on the 15th October, 1806. | Saxe-Meiningen.

The dutchy of Saxe-Altemburg, more populous in proportion to its extent, and more wealthy, than the preceding, possesses nearly an equal revenue. Its capital, which is well built and peopled by ten thousand inhabitants, contains four churches, a gymnasium, a public library, and a museum of natural history. Ronneburg is about fifteen miles distant from Altemburg; it was formerly defended by an old castle; the number of inhabitants exceeds 4000. It may be added that the mineral baths near the town, notwithstanding their agreeable situation, and the money that has been laid out in embellishing them, are not much frequented. Eisenberg, a small town of nearly the same population as the last, and commanded by a strong castle, carries on a trade in glass and different manufactures. | Dutchy of Saxe-Altemburg.

The dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha is the last of the Saxon principalities that remains to be described. Although it be almost unnecessary to notice small territories, scattered in different countries, and belonging to secondary states, it ought to be mentioned that the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha comprehends, besides its possessions on the declivities of the Rhœne-Gebirge, the greater part of the territory between the Nahe and the Glan on the left banks of the Rhine, which has been called the principality of Lichtenberg. A branch of the Thuringerwald extends from the country in the neighbourhood of Gotha to the north, and that part of ducal Saxony is supplied from it with coal and different metals. The country to the north of Coburg may be considered a continuation of the Rhœne mountains, which join the Thuringerwald. They are called Sonnenberg by the Germans.[w]

Structure. Granite overtopped with basalt is observed in that branch of the Rhœne-Gebirge chain. Calcareous rocks, containing organic remains, and belonging to the second formation, are situated on the declivities. All the land in the principality of Lichtenberg abounds with coal and limestone.

Sonnenberg. The country of Sonnenberg, though by no means important from its extent, is remarkable for its industry. It affords a striking example of the prosperity which a people may attain by labour and economy. That district, covered with mountains and forests, derives annually from its products, apparently of little value, the sum of 5000*l.* The price given for them is not the price of the materials but of the labour bestowed on them. They are the toys of children, boxes, chests, marbles, glass buttons, and different articles of cutlery. It may be said that commercial interest first taught these mountaineers the advantages that result from the division of labour. One makes the body of a doll, another the arms, a third unites them, and a fourth paints it. They follow a like method with whatever they make of wood or pasteboard. Thus, it happens, that they can afford to sell their handiwork at a very low price; it may be stated for instance that seventy dozen of children's trumpets can be purchased for half a crown or three shillings. The toys made in the district are sent to different parts of Germany, Frankfort, Leipsig, Dresden, Nuremberg, Munich and other trading towns, from which they are exported to every country in Europe, and even to some parts of America.

The inhabitants in the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, like those of Saxe-Weimar, live under a representative government. The military establishment consists of 1400 men; its revenue was estimated at 75,000*l.*, and the public debt is not more than 170,000*l.*

Towns. The principal towns are Gotha, Coburg and Saalfeld. The first is as fine a city as any in ducal Saxony, and perhaps more remarkable than any other for its scientific institutions. The gymnasium is much frequented, and from its observatory important services have been rendered to astronomy. It possesses, besides, a museum of natural history, and a valuable collection of medals. Gotha is agreeably situated on the side of a hill above the Leine. It is adorned by several fountains and some elegant buildings. It was founded in the year 964 by an archbishop of Mayence; it contains at present 11,000 inhabitants. The trade of Gotha consists principally in porcelain, woollen and cotton stuffs.

Coburg. Coburg, too, is noted for its porcelain and trinkets in petrified wood; it possesses a considerable trade in tobacco, linen, and woollen goods. Built in the middle of a beautiful valley on the banks of the Itz, many strangers resort to it. The places of amusement are a theatre, concert rooms, and casinos, one of which is called the Erholung.[x]

[w] See Dictionnaire de la Geographie Physique. (Encyclopédie Methodique,) tome V. article Rhœne-Gebirge.

[x] Erholung, signifies recreation in German.

The public buildings are the ducal palace and the townhouse. Although the arts and sciences are not so much encouraged as at Gotha, it has its observatory, museum of natural history, and a public library. The population, according to the latest calculations, amounts to eight thousand inhabitants.

Little can be said of St. Wendel, in the principality of Lichtenberg; it is considered a town, but it contains hardly two thousand inhabitants. | Saint Wendel.

Having thus given an account of the different dutchies in Saxony, we shall endeavour to describe electoral Hesse, a country more important than any of these principalities. Possessing a population which Hassel estimates at five hundred and eighty-five thousand individuals, and a surface not less than three thousand three hundred and ninety-six square miles, it holds a distinguished rank in the German confederation. It is bounded on the north by Hanover and the Prussian province of Westphalia, on the west and the south by the principalities of Waldeck, Hesse-Darmstadt and Bavaria, on the east by the Prussian province of Saxony, the great dutchy of Weimar, and the kingdom of Bavaria. It possesses also the seigniory of Smalcalden, which is surrounded by the Saxon dutchies. | Electoral Hesse.

Hesse is principally formed by those deposites of limestone which the Germans call *muschelkalk*, and by the sandstone, known in the same country by the name of *quadersandstein*. Volcanic summits rise from the midst of these rocks; they are similar to those that have been already mentioned in the account of the provinces on the Rhine. Ramifications of the Wogel and Rhœne-Gebirge mountains extend through the whole of Hesse to its northern extremity, and form the numerous valleys by which the soil is indented. Thus, the land is better adapted for the growth of timber and pasturage than for agriculture. | Soil.

The highest summits are situated in the country of Fulda, and it too is nearest the centre of the Rhœne mountains. The Milzeburgh reaches to the height of three thousand two hundred and ninety feet, and the Dammersfeld to three thousand six hundred and forty. Two distinct ranges may be observed in the northern part of the electorate; the one on the south-east of the large plain of Cassel, is formed by horizontal strata of ancient sandstone; the other on the north-east is composed of calcareous rocks crowned with basaltic summits. | Heights of the mountains.

The Habichtwald is not the least remarkable of these heights; its ridge forms the eight-sided pavilion of Weissenstein; and the bituminous wood near its summit is worked and used as coal. At a greater distance is situated the Alberg, a mountain of a conical form, less elevated than the last; on its summit are still to be seen the ruins of an ancient castle. But the mountain of Meisner rises at the distance of eighteen miles from Cassel, and it is more remarkable than any of the rest from the rocks and substances that compose it. M. Daubuisson de Voisins has given a description of it, to which some details may be added. It is separated from all those that surround it, and equal in elevation to two thousand three hundred and thirty-four feet above the level of the sea. From its base to its summit, that terminates in a plain six miles in length, and three in breadth, are observed in the first place an extensive mass of calcareous rocks, mixed with shells and other substances; above it is a layer of *lignites* or bituminous wood, not less than a hundred feet in thickness, and covered with basalts that vary in height from three hundred and thirty to five hundred feet. | Volcanic mountains.

The observer, says M. Daubuisson,[7] after having examined the component parts of the mountain, and compared them with those of the neighbouring country, must come to the conclusion | M. Daubuisson's description.

[7] Traité de Geognosie, tom. II. pp. 230, 231.

that the enormous mass of wood which rests on its summit, has been transported to it. It is impossible that all the trees could have grown on the place. The soil on which they were deposited has been at one period a shallow, and the water by which they were carried down, flowed from a higher region. The basalt that now covers them, issued from a crater situated at a more elevated level. The lofty country from whence the trees as well as the lava descended, exists no longer, for the mountain commands at present all the neighbouring district to the distance of forty-five miles, and indeed there are only in the whole of lower Germany one or two summits of a greater elevation. All the contiguous territory, which at one time must have been higher than the mountain, has therefore disappeared; it has been destroyed and taken away, but not by a sudden or instantaneous cause. Time, assisted by the elements of the atmosphere, has effected the change, cut the mountain into its present shape, made it a detached mass, and separated it on every side. It may be added that the fossil wood on Meisner, like all the other lignites, must have been heaped by fresh water deposites. Thus the greater part of the mountain, after having been formed in the depths of the primitive ocean, might have been the bed of a lake that watered a volcano, of which the remains are the basalts on the summits. To how many reflections may not such phenomena give rise!

Organic remains. | Fossil fish, in sufficient preservation to discover the genera to which they belong, are found in the copper and bituminous schistus on Riegelsdorff, as well as in that of Mansfeld. Almost all these remains of a creation for ever annihilated, differ from the fish that are known at present; it has been remarked that animals of the same species are frequently found together, as if they had congregated while alive. Reiss, a German naturalist, affirms that he discovered the hand of an ape in the schistus, but it has been probably some part of a marine mammiferous animal, since no remains of anthropomorphites have hitherto been observed in the different deposites that form the crust of the earth.

Productions. | Copper and argil, used in making porcelain, are obtained in the territory of Hesse. Alabaster of a very white colour is exported from the neighbourhood of Konnefeld; tripoli and jaspers are collected in the western districts watered by the Lahn; the numerous salt springs on the frontiers of Hesse-Darmstadt, and in the country of Smalcalden, produce annually a hundred thousand hundred weight of salt; the mines that are worked near the town of Smalcalden, yield thirteen thousand hundred weight of iron, and four thousand of natural steel. The country of Cassel has likewise its mineral wealth; three or four salt works have been erected at a saline spring, near the burgh of Carlshafen, at the base of the Reinhards-Wald. Twenty-two drying houses and a proportionable number of works are built at another and more abundant spring near Allendorf. The salt obtained from it every year is said to be worth 17,000*l.* Sixty workmen are employed at the iron mine of Hohenkirchen; nearly the same number of men earn a subsistence at another mine near Homberg, and at a third not far from Rommershausen. The mountain of Hirschberg contains, in the neighbourhood of Almerode, beds of schistus, from which about four hundred quintals of alum are extracted. The total produce of two mines, one of cobalt, and another of copper, near Riegelsdorff, is not less than twenty-five thousand quintals, and they furnish employment to nearly a thousand individuals. Other mines of copper, less valuable than the last, extend to the west of Cassel. Lastly, coal is obtained in different parts of Hesse; there are besides gold and silver mines, several thermal and sulphureous springs.

Climate. | The climate of Hesse is on the whole temperate, but the winters are sometimes severe. As in every other mountainous country, the valleys and the hills are subject to differences of temperature.

that influence in a greater or less degree the nature of the agricultural products. Different kinds of grain, leguminous plants and fruits grow on the plains in the neighbourhood of Cassel and Hanau. The grape, too, ripens in some places. Lint and hemp are raised in several valleys, and wherever the land has not been laboured, the woods are abundant.

Divisions.

It appears from a calculation of Hassel, that in all the dependencies of the electorate, there are 1,337,420 acres of arable land, 329,688, laid out in gardens and orchards, 436,675 of meadow or pasturage, and 184,160 of woods or forests.

Products of industry.

Manufacturing cloth, weaving linen and different woollen stuffs, working metals, and the art of making glass, porcelain and earthenware, form the principal employments of the inhabitants in Hesse. It is chiefly at the two extremities of the electorate, on the territories of Cassel and Hanau, that the products of labour are most considerable. It might be wished, however, notwithstanding the protection which government grants to industry, that it was still less restrained, and particularly that there were fewer incorporations; their influence and the spirit which guides them all are more adapted to prevent than to facilitate improvements; not more than a few years have elapsed since it was unlawful to carry on several trades in the villages. Stein assures us, that even at present a man cannot become a grocer in some places, unless a bodily defect renders him unfit for a different occupation.

Council of Arts.

It is to be hoped that the council of arts, which has been lately established, and whose duty it is to examine the corporation enactments, to make reports concerning inventions and proposed improvements, to award medals and premiums to the workmen and labourers, who send the most approved specimens to the exhibitions that are held at stated times, may tend to convince government and the nation of their real interests.

Commerce.

The commerce of Hesse consists in the exportation of its products and manufactures, and in the conveyance of goods sent by Frankfort to the north of Germany. According to Stein, the thread and linens exported every year from Cassel to foreign fairs, may be sold on an average for 208,300*l.* The same country exports besides about 120,000 casks of mineral water, and a great quantity of merchandise, for which it receives in exchange, sugar, coffee, cotton, French and German wines, grain, lint and hemp. Although it is vain to attach any importance to the balance of trade, since every state must be obliged to furnish a value equal to what it receives; it may be said that Hesse derives some advantage from its commercial relations with foreign powers, because the industrious classes being sober and economical, consume less than they produce.

Government.

The electorate of Hesse was destroyed by Napoleon in 1806, who added the greater part of its territories to the kingdom of Westphalia, while the county of Hanover was united to the great dutchy of Frankfort. But Hesse became an independent state in 1813, a prince was then restored to his possessions, whose family, according to genealogists, was founded in the year 875 by Ramir, surnamed the *Long Necked*, count of Hainault. The government is monarchical, the power of the prince is modified by that of the states, which are composed of the principal ecclesiastics of the different Christian communions, the mayor of Cassel, seven deputies elected from the nobility, eight from the burgesses, and nine landed proprietors.

Religion.

Catholicism is not the most common form of worship in the electorate; the number of Calvinists or reformists amounts to 336,800, there are not fewer than 140,000 Lutherans, while those of the Catholic persuasion do not exceed 102,800; the Jews may be equal to 5,300, and the Mennonites to 100. Many families are sprung from French emi-

grants, three or four thousand of whom left their country, and settled in Hesse after the fatal revocation of the edict of Nantes. The persecuted protestants being hospitably received by the Germans, were grateful to their benefactors; the French language is no longer spoken, their descendants are confounded with the other inhabitants.

Jews. If the Jews in the electorate are not in the same degraded state as in Poland and several German towns, they are indebted for it to the Westphalian government, by which they were made to participate in the rights and privileges of citizens. A single restriction was imposed on them, they were compelled to keep their legers and commercial accounts, not in the Hebrew, but in the German language.

Censorship. A censorship of the press was established throughout the electorate in the year 1816; no book printed in Hesse, or published in a foreign country, can be sold or distributed, until it be approved by the agents of government.

The property of the prince, nobles and clergy were sold, imposts were diminished, and onerous taxes abolished, when Hesse was added to the kingdom of Westphalia. After the ancient order of things was established, when statute labour and other hardships were exacted from the inhabitants, when those that had purchased land, were summarily dispossessed of their property, the discontent became so general that government thought it prudent to prevent the expression of public opinion.

National property. Nothing indeed could have been more impolitic or more unjust than the decree, by which the ancient proprietors were put in possession of lands that they had sold, and the purchasers only entitled to the sums that they had expended in improving their property. Some noble or powerful families, it is true, obtained through the assembly of the confederation, an indemnity equivalent to the interest of the capital which they had laid out; but the petty proprietors could not bring their complaints before the Germanic confederation. Other grievances were added to this motive of discontent, which in truth concerned only the least numerous class; the inhabitants had to pay many taxes and imposts, in addition to those imposed by the Westphalian government; indeed it may be affirmed without fear of contradiction, that the proprietor pays at present in the shape of contributions, three times as much as what he paid in 1806. The necessities of the crown were no excuse either for the measures relative to the national domains, or for the augmentation of the taxes; because at the time of the restoration, the prince received 75,000*l.* from France, 160,000*l.* from England, and 6,500*l.* from the Jews to confirm them in their privileges as citizens.[a]

Revenue and debt. Hassel supposes the revenue of the electorate to be equal to four millions five hundred thousand florins, and its public debt to one million nine hundred and forty-five thousand. Thus it may be concluded that both in a financial and commercial point of view, it is one of the wealthiest secondary states in Europe.

Army. The military establishment is proportionate to its resources. The levy, which was made in 1814 under the name of *landsturm*, was not less than eighty-two thousand infantry, and two thousand cavalry. The army in 1816 consisted of twenty-two thousand men, of whom six thousand formed the *landwehr* or force for the defence of the country. It has been reduced to nine thousand, and out of that number five thousand six hundred are the contingent which the state furnishes to the confederation. But as if it were the object of government to keep up an army of warlike and effective men, the period of military service has been fixed for twelve years, and every soldier, who engages after the expiry of that time for other twelve years, receives at the end of his second engagement, a

[a] See Stein's Geography.

civil employment or a pension. The public tranquillity is maintained by a body of dragoons, trained after the manner of the French gendarmes.

Sixty-two towns are situated in the electorate, the least important of which are Rinteln in the neighbourhood of Hanover; Hof-geismar, which is known from its mineral springs, Eschwege, watered by the Werra, and enriched by its trade in tobacco and the conveyance of goods, Allendorf on the base of Mount Meissner, near which a saline spring yields annually 90,000 hundred weight of salt, Rothenburg, the residence of the landgrave of Hesse-Rothenburg, who possessed under the sovereignty of the elector, eight towns and two hundred and nineteen villages, but who in consequence of a private arrangement between them, receives at present an annual income of 12,500*L*., lastly, Gelnhausen, built on a lofty hill, from which the Kinsig, a small river, descends, and waters lands covered with vineyards. | Towns.

But several towns of greater importance may be mentioned, Cassel or the most considerable is the capital of the electorate. Stein, Hassel, and other authors who have written on the statistics of Germany, do not agree concerning the number of its inhabitants, but it is not less perhaps than 20,000. It is divided into three principal quarters, the Old, the New and the New Upper Town. The two first are old, and consequently ill-built; the last or the most modern consists of broad and straight streets, adorned with fine houses. The principal street, or that of Bellevue, commands a view of the castle. The finest squares are the Royal Square, those of the Parade, Frederick, and the Gensdarmes. The most important public buildings are the Catholic church, the arsenal, and the electoral palace, which was burnt to the ground in 1811, but which government began to rebuild in 1817. The town possesses a lyceum, a normal school or seminary for the instruction of school-masters, an observatory and several literary institutions. A valuable library and collection of philosophical and mathematical instruments are attached to the electoral museum. The garden of Bellevue, the esplanade, and the park of Augarten, are the most frequented walks in the town. The country seat of *Wilhelmshohe* beyond the walls, is more frequently visited than any other part of the neighbouring country; its gardens, fountains and cascades render it perhaps the finest place of the kind in Germany. Cassel cannot be ranked among the number of trading towns, still two large fairs are held in it every year; its manufactures are linen, woollen stuffs, porcelain and earthenware. | The capital.

Marburg on the Lahn has been styled the capital of Upper Hesse; it is according to Hassel a town of 6,588 inhabitants. The ancient Gothic church is finer than any of the other buildings; the university was founded in 1527, its library may be voluminous, but many of the works are now out of date. The trade of the place depends on its manufactures, and the most important consist in serge and camlet. | Marburg.

Smalcalde, or Smalcalden, watered by a small river of the same name, is an ancient town, defended by two castles, those of Hessenhof and Wilhelmsburg; they belong at present to the elector. A town that contains 5400 inhabitants, possesses salt springs, iron works, and carries on a considerable trade in cutlery, must be regarded as a place of some importance in a country like Hesse. But Smalcalden has other claims to distinction, which an historian may consider still more important; several treaties were signed there, conferences were held in it at different times, from the year 1529 to the year 1540. The princes, that determined to support the reformation, met at Smalcalden, and concerted their plans against Charles the Fifth, who became the protector of Rome, after having pillaged it. Christopher Cellarius was born in the same town; he is known to posterity from his editions of different writers, and from his ancient ex- | Smalcalden.

cellent treatise on geography. Niceron the Jesuit has published a catalogue of his works.[a]

Fulda.

Fulda, a town on the river of the same name, is larger than Smalcalden; its population amounts at least to 8800 inhabitants. The cathedral, a fine building, contains the remains of St. Boniface, the apostle of the Germans, whose memory was held in great veneration both in the country and in the palace of the sovereign bishop that governed the dutchy of Fulda, at so late a period as the year 1803, when his states passed into the hands of a prince of Nassau, and became afterwards a Hessian province, in consequence of different arrangements. The town is finely built; the gymnasium, the seminary of arts, the school of midwifery and other institutions are in general well attended. Most of the buildings, that served for convents in the time of the bishop, are now used for a better purpose. The Capuchins and Franciscans reside together in the neighbourhood of the town; two convents for women, to whom the education of young persons is intrusted, have been allowed to remain.

Country.

The country of Fulda, though not extensive, is very productive; abundant crops of wheat are raised; it yields different fruits and good wine, not quite so good perhaps as when the principal vineyards belonged to the monks, who kept the wines for ten years in large casks, and by doing so, increased their value ten-fold. It is said that some of these wines have been sold for nine florins the bottle. The people are active, sober, and industrious.

Hanau.

Hanau, next to Cassel, the largest town in Hesse, is the metropolis of the province. Hassel makes the population amount to 9534 individuals; but according to Stein, it is not less than 12,000. The latter writer does not appear to have overrated the number of inhabitants. Hanau is divided into the old and new town, the last part is regularly built. There are two museums, the one belongs to the Weteravian Society, and the other, which is rich in minerals, has been collected by M. Leonhard. The town is pleasantly situated in a fruitful country, at the confluence of the Kinsig and the Maine. The elector has a palace in the neighbourhood; another royal castle has been built at Wilhelmsbad, about three miles distant from Hanau. The name of Wilhelmsbad indicates its thermal springs; the gardens round the castle are large and well laid out, but they are not kept with sufficient care; they are resorted to by the inhabitants and all the strangers that visit the baths.

Hesse-Homburg. Population.

We have given a detailed account of electoral Hesse; it would be difficult however to say much concerning Hesse-Homburg, a principality, that, according to official accounts and different calculations, contains only 20,000 inhabitants, and of which the superficial extent does not exceed a hundred and two English square miles. The revenue amounts only to 19,084*l.*, and the military force consists of two hundred men. It has besides another disadvantage, for it is made up of two petty territories nearly sixty miles distant from each other. The one, or Homburg, is situated between the possessions of Hesse-Darmstadt, electoral Hesse, the Prussian principality of Wetzlar, Nassau and Frankfort on the Maine; the other, or Meissenheim, on the left bank of the Rhine, lies between the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, the principalities of Birkenfeld and St. Wendel, and the Rhenish Bavarian provinces.

Soil.

The land in the two portions of Hesse-Homburg, is fruitful in grain, and abounds in metal; several mines are worked in the territory of Homburg, and there is no scarcity of iron or coal in Meissenheim. The Lahn flows through Homburg, the capital of the principality, which, according to Stein, contains a population of 2700 souls; it

[a] Œuvres de Niceron, tome v.

carries on a trade in linen, silk, flannel and woollen stuffs. Meissenheim, on the banks of the Glan, may be considered a burgh with a population of 1730 inhabitants. The commerce of the last place consists in the produce of its mines and glass works.

The great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, though not quite so large as electoral Hesse, is however more populous. The extent of its surface does not appear to be correctly ascertained, at least German geographers differ on the subject. Hassel supposes it to be equal to a hundred and seventy-seven German square miles; Leichtenstern does not consider it less than two hundred and four; Stein makes it about a hundred and sixty-nine; Fabri nearly two hundred and fifteen; and Crome a hundred and ninety-six. The last calculation is perhaps the most correct, and it may be assumed that the extent of the great dutchy cannot be much less than two thousand three hundred and fifty-two English square miles. Its population, says M. Fabri, amounted in 1819 to six hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants,[b] and Hassel[c] made it equal to six hundred and seventy-three thousand individuals in the year 1822. It appears, however, that the number of inhabitants at present does not exceed six hundred and fifty thousand, so that on an average there are more than two hundred and seventy individuals for every square mile. Some notion of the resources of the country may be inferred from so dense a population. | Hesse-Darmstadt.

Hesse-Darmstadt consists of two portions which are separated by the territory of Frankfort on the Maine. The first is bounded by the principality of Nassau, and the dependencies of Wetzlar on the west, and by electoral Hesse on the north, east and south. The second is bounded by the principality of Nassau, the territory of Frankfort, and electoral Hesse on the north, by Bavaria on the east, by the great dutchy of Baden on the south, and by the Rhenish Bavarian provinces on the west. | Position.

The lands in the territory of Hesse-Darmstadt towards the north are composed, like those in electoral Hesse, of sandstone, calcareous and volcanic rocks. The districts that extend to the south of Frankfort, are parts of the primary formation, a formation in which deposites of organic matter have never been observed. The basaltic chain of Vogelberg stretches across northern Hesse; the heights are covered with forests, and their sharp and peaked summits, like those of Feldberg, are nowhere higher than two thousand eight hundred feet. The Maclenberg on the banks of the Rhine, or in the southern part of the country, rises to the height of three thousand six hundred feet above the level of the sea. The country on the banks of the Rhine is more fruitful than any other part of Hesse. The sides of the hills are planted with vineyards. The plains and the valleys yield rich harvests, and many places are covered with fruit trees. The mountainous districts are less fertile, but their deficiency in that respect is supplied by their valuable mineral productions. | Soil.

Although the Hessians in general are laborious and active, the people on the mountains are perhaps still more so than the other inhabitants. The commerce of the agricultural districts consists in corn, wines, dried fruits, oxen and sheep; that of the higher districts in cotton, woollen and linen manufactures, leather, metals and cutlery. The advantages that industry derives from a rich and fruitful soil, have been promoted by a wise and enlightened government, which was among the first that adopted the representative system. The Hessian nation expected and obtained their privileges from a descendant of Philip the Magnanimous. | Industry.

[b] Handbuch der neuesten Geographie. [c] Statischer umriss, page 92.

Religious sects. There are more Mennonites in the great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt than in the other German principalities. Hassel computes their number to be nearly a thousand; the same author supposes the Jews to amount to fifteen thousand, and the Lutherans and Reformists to nearly five hundred thousand; the Catholics make up the rest of the population. The number of Lutheran churches is equal to six hundred and thirty-five, those of the Reformists to a hundred and twenty-six, and lastly, the Catholic churches to a hundred and sixty-six.

Government. The great duke assembles the deputies of the states, whenever it is necessary to levy contributions. A new system of laws, framed after the model of the Austrian codes, was put into force in 1819. The criminal jurisprudence has been committed to a supreme court of appeal. The public works are superintended by a council, over which the duke presides. The justices of peace in each province are subject to the jurisdiction of the provincial courts. Separate courts or colleges, as they are called, have been erected for the purpose of regulating the taxes and contributions, and auditing the public accounts.

Revenue. According to Hassel, the revenues of the state were equal in 1821 to the sum of 4,997,092 florins, and the expenditure to 4,496,000; namely, 771,000 for the civil list, 830,000 for the army, 2,827,000 for the different charges connected with the home department, and 568,000 for the interest of the public debt, which amounts to 11,288,000 florins.

The military force of the great dutchy consists of about eight thousand men; its contingent to the Germanic confederation amounts to six thousand. It may have besides at its disposal in time of war a considerable number of irregular troops. The levy or *landwehre* collected in 1814, amounted to ninety-five thousand men, sixteen thousand of whom were armed with muskets. The landwehre was declared permanent, in conformity to a decree passed on the 24th of August in the same year. Stein informs us, that government granted rewards to those who supplied the men with arms and clothing.

Education. The government has been commended for the encouragement which it affords to commerce and industry; but it has been accused, and it is to be feared too justly, of something like parsimony, in diffusing the blessings of education and knowledge. The university and schools in the great dutchy, it may be allowed, are sufficient for the inhabitants; but it was most impolitic in government to regulate education by the rank of the different individuals. In order to diminish the number of students, says Stein, a decree was passed in the month of June, 1813, by which the children of burgesses and peasants were prohibited from attending the university, unless they had distinguished themselves at some of the public schools, and even in that case the sovereign's permission must be obtained. What can be gained by excluding a numerous class from the benefits of instruction, and by depriving the country of their most valuable services? It is a misfortune, from the pecuniary sacrifices attending education, that some men must remain ignorant; but it is injustice to prevent them from educating their children.

Provinces. The great dutchy is divided into three provinces; the principal towns in Starkenburg, or the first, are Darmstadt and Offenbach; Giessen is the metropolis of Upper Hesse, or the second, and there are, besides, eight other towns of two or three thousand inhabitants; Mayence is the chief town in the province of the Rhine, or the third; the towns next to Mayence in importance are Worms and Bingen. We shall first give a short account of the towns in Upper Hesse.

Towns in Upper Hesse. Giessen, a town to which Fabri assigns 6000 inhabitants, although its present population appears to be upwards of 8000, is situated at the confluence of the Wieseck and the Lahn. Its university

has been long known; the library, the observatory, and botanical gardens, where lectures are delivered on every branch of rural economy, prove that the useful arts, as well as the sciences, are not neglected. The public buildings are the castle, the arsenal, and the church of Saint Pancras. Hertz, a celebrated jurist, perhaps better known by the Latin name of Hertius, was born in the town; he is the author of several valuable works and of different memoirs on the history and geography of ancient Germany. Giessen carries on a trade in woollen and cotton goods. Alsfeld is the next largest town in Upper Hesse; it possesses three cloth manufactories, a castle, two churches, an orphan hospital, and upwards of three thousand inhabitants.

Towns in Starkenburg.

Darmstadt or the capital was the largest town in the country, before Mayence was added to the principality. It is watered by a small river of the same name, and contains 16,000 inhabitants. It is divided into the old and new town; a considerable portion of the first has fallen into decay; the second is modern and well built; in that quarter of the town are situated the ducal castle, a gallery of paintings, a hall filled with statues and ancient armour, a military school, a drawing academy, a school of arts, a gymnasium, and a library containing ninety thousand volumes. The principal edifice is a very large building, in which the troops are exercised, the others are an opera and cathedral; in the last are the tombs of several princes of the reigning family.

Offenbach.

Offenbach, peopled by 7000 inhabitants, and rich from its trade in silk, wax-cloth, tobacco and lace, lies to the north of Darmstadt on the banks of the Rhine.

Towns in the province of the Rhine.

Bingen is built at the confluence of the Rhine and the Nahe, in an agreeable and fruitful district; though not containing more than 3000 inhabitants, it carries on a considerable trade in leather and woollen stuffs.

Borbetomagus.

Worms appears to be the town of *Borbetomagus*, which Ptolemy calls the principal city of the *Vangiones*, a people that shall be mentioned in the account of the Rhenish provinces belonging to Bavaria. The same town received the name of Vormatia under the second race of the French kings. It was ruined by the Vandals in the year 407, by the Huns in 451, by the Normans in 894, and lastly, by the French in 1689. That ancient city has long since recovered from all these calamities; indeed it has not at present the appearance of a modern town; the streets are narrow, and many of the houses are ill built. Some public buildings must be excepted, these are the cathedral, the townhouse, and the mint. Its population amounts to 7000 inhabitants, it possesses a lucrative commerce, which consists principally in the sale of the wines that are produced in the fertile lands on the left bank of the Rhine.

Mayence.

Mayence, or, according to its German name, Mainz, the largest city in the great dutchy of Hesse, stands at a short distance below the confluence of the Rhine and the Maine. It contains 27,000 inhabitants, some fine edifices and several useful institutions. The town is by no means regularly built, almost all the houses are constructed of red sandstone, and almost all the streets are narrow and crooked. It has been said that there are only three regular streets in Mayence; and the *Grosse-Bleiche* is without doubt the finest.[4] The only tolerable squares are the market-place and the Green Square; the cathedral is remarkable for its construction, antiquity, and the valuable ornaments contained in it. The exterior might be still more imposing, if the two principal turrets were rebuilt. A large arsenal and a palace that belonged formerly to the Teutonic knights, may still be seen in the town, which is now one of the four strong places in the Germanic confederation. But the most curious

[4] Grosse-Bleiche or great bleaching place.

building, or the one best deserving of being visited, is that in which the principal collections are arranged; namely, three of medals, a museum of natural history, a valuable assortment of philosophical instruments, and a library containing more than eighty thousand volumes. The museum of Roman antiquities collected within the walls and in the neighbourhood has never been considered inferior to any in Germany. It is well known that Mayence was a place of some importance when the Romans were masters of the country, and that it was for a long time inhabited by Drusus. Several authors believe that its Roman name was *Mogontiacum*. It disputes with Strasburg and Harlem the invention of printing; it cannot be denied that the remains of the house in which Guttenberg lived, are still to be seen in the town. If indeed Mayence can boast of having first discovered that art by which knowledge and light triumph for ever over barbarism and darkness, it appears to have profited little from it, so few men of genius and learning have been born within its walls. Mayence is not a manufacturing place, but its territory enables it to carry on a considerable trade in wine, grain, cattle, tobacco, and lastly, in iron and coal.* The best wine in the country is produced on the lands in the neighbourhood of Hockheim, at no great distance from the town; in some years, a measure consisting of six hundred pints taken from the wine press, has been sold for 84*l.*

Neighbourhood.

The country near Mayence is as beautiful as any that can be imagined. The river bends majestically northwards, and the surface of its waters is not less than 1400 feet in breadth; on the south it forms the boundary of an immense plain, and the high mountains on the north seem to impede its rapid course. The green islands on the Rhine, the villages that rise like so many amphitheatres on the heights, the blue tints of the old town of Mayence, contrasted by surrounding verdure, and the various views on every side, must strike even those who are least sensible to the charms of nature.

Principality of Lippe-Detmold.

Lippe-Detmold is the largest of the numerous principalities that remain to be described; its surface may be equal to three hundred and thirty-six English square miles, and according to Hassel its population amounted, in 1822, to seventy-one thousand two hundred individuals. It is bounded on the north by the territory of Rinteln, which belongs to electoral Hesse, on the east by a portion of the kingdom of Hanover, and the principality of Waldeck; on every other side it is encompassed by the Prussian province of Westphalia.

Soil.

As to the geology of the province, the soil belongs to the ancient limestone formation, of the same sort as the rocks on Jura, to which the Germans have given the name of *muschelkalk*. The other substances are marble, clay that is well adapted for ordinary earthenware, and the sandstone that is called *quadersandstein* in Germany. The lands are fruitful, although the greater part of the country is mountainous; it produces corn, fruit, lint and hemp. There are large forests of oaks, and extensive tracts covered with trees.

The industry of the country is principally confined to cotton spinning, to the manufacture of linen and woollen stuffs, and also to those tobacco pipes that are made of carbonated magnesia, and known in commerce by the name of *ecume de mer*. The inhabitants, who are almost all Calvinists, have enjoyed a representative constitution since the year 1819, and before that period they succeeded in abolishing the impost on wines and several other articles; the duties on spirits, stamps and playing cards, are the

* The goods conveyed to it by water during the year 1819, amounted in weight to 1,342,314 hundred weight. The exports in the following year were still more considerable, and there were besides 120,000 hundred weight exported by land. See Allgem. Hauld. Zeitung, 1825.

most important which have been retained. The people in some powerful nations might be desirous of similar reforms.

The principality of Lippe-Detmold possesses a revenue of 42,000*l.*; government pays great attention to economy, so much so, that a considerable public debt, in proportion to the size of the state, has been much diminished by the excess of the revenue above the expenditure. The military force amounts to seven hundred men. | Revenue.

The princes of Lippe-Detmold were probably descended from Wittikind, who lived more than a thousand years ago. But some genealogists, considering perhaps that origin too recent, go back to the German nobles, during the period that the country was governed by the Romans. The family was so important in the reign of Charlemagne, that the people on the banks of the Weser being compelled to defend themselves against their neighbours, chose one of those princes for their chief. The title of count was conferred on them by the emperor Charlemagne; but it is difficult to trace the filiation to a more remote period than the commencement of the twelfth century.[e] | Reigning family.

The five largest towns in the principality, are not places of much importance. Detmold on the Werra, or the residence of the prince, contains only two thousand four hundred inhabitants. The principal buildings and institutions, are two Calvinistic churches and one of the Augsburg communion, a college with a library, a school of industry, a seminary for teachers, an infirmary, an orphan hospital, a house of correction, and a bible society. The old quarter, which Cluvier supposes the ancient Teutoburgium, is dirty and ill-built, but the streets in the new town are clean and regular. | Towns.

Lemgo, or Lemgow, on the Vega, is more populous than the capital. The number of its inhabitants is not less than three thousand four hundred. It possesses a gymnasium, and a convent for women; its trade consists in linen and woollen stuffs, and also in tobacco-pipes, made of carbonated magnesia. Dr. Kæmpfer, a celebrated traveller, was born in the town; he was the author of several works, but the civil and natural history of Japan has been considered the most valuable of his writings. Uffeln, or Saltz Uffeln, on the small river Salza, contains about one thousand four hundred inhabitants. A considerable quantity of salt is extracted from the springs in its vicinity. Horn, the population of which is not much greater, lies near the forest of Teutoburg. A range of high rocks may be observed at no great distance from the walls; they are placed vertically above each other, and several antiquaries suppose them druidical monuments; the inhabitants call them the *extersteine.* | Lemgo.

Lippstadt, a town of three thousand inhabitants, may be said to form a part of the same principality. It is situated on the Lippe, and possesses a petty territory, that is enclosed by the Prussian province of Westphalia. Formerly a free and imperial town, it is now subject to two masters, the great duke and the king of Prussia. While some authors consider it the ancient Luppia, a town mentioned by Ptolemy, others maintain positively that it was not founded before the twelfth century.[f] It is well fortified, and possesses a gymnasium. | Lippstadt.

The principality of Lippe-Schauenburg extends to the north of the one that was last mentioned. It is separated from it by the Hessian territory of Rinteln, which joins it on the east. It is bounded by Hanover on the north, and by the province of Westphalia on the west and south. The extent of the possessions belonging to the prince of Lippe-Schauenburg may be equal to a hundred and seventy-two English square miles, and the number of inhabitants to twenty-five thousand. The revenue has been estimated at five thousand eight hundred and | Principality of Lippe-Schauenburg.

[e] Moreri's Dictionary.—Supplement.—Lippe. [f] Dictionnaire geographique de Bruzen de la Martinière.

thirty-four pounds, and the armed force amounts to two hundred and forty men.

Soil. The land in the territory, is of the same nature as that in the dutchy of Lippe-Detmold. There are several mineral springs, and extensive beds of coal. The fields are fertile in corn, lint and fruit; the forests yield more timber than what is necessary for the use of the inhabitants.

Government. The government, like that in the last principality, is representative. Servitude was abolished in the year 1810; but statute labour and other burdens are still exacted from the country people. The prince granted to the deputies of the districts, the privilege of examining the public expenses, of regulating the amount of contributions, and the purposes for which they are to be applied, of deliberating on the laws, and proposing any measure for the good of the country. Two towns and three villages are contained in this small principality. Bückeburg, or Bückenburg, the capital, is situated on the river Aa. It is adorned by a castle, in which the prince resides; it has its gymnasium, and contains 2000 inhabitants. The same town was the birth-place of Büsching, the celebrated geographer. Stadtlagen, situated in an agreeable valley on the Diemen, is peopled by 1500 inhabitants. Salt springs have been discovered in the neighbourhood.

Principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt. The principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, the superficial extent of which cannot be less than three hundred and eighteen square miles, is bounded by the Prussian province of Saxony on the north, by the great dutchy of Weimar on the east, and by the Saxon dutchies of Coburg-Gotha and Meiningen on the west and south. It furnishes a contingent of nearly five hundred men to the Germanic confederation, possesses, according to Stein, a revenue of 22,917*l.*, and its population, says Hassel, amounts to 55,000 individuals.

Soil. Calcareous rocks are observed in the northern, and primitive in the southern part of the principality; the heights of the Thuringerwald are mostly formed by the latter sort. The hills, that reach to the height of thirteen or fourteen hundred feet, are covered with forests. Plains and fruitful valleys, such as the vale of Helm, are situated near the base of these hills. Mines of silver, copper, and iron have been discovered in many parts of the country. The inhabitants are employed in working these metals, and in making different kinds of tissue.

Government. A representative government was established in the year 1816. The legislative assembly is composed of thirty-six deputies; six of whom are chosen from the proprietors of baronial estates, other six from landed proprietors not possessing baronies, six are nominated by the towns, and eighteen are elected by the citizens. They are all appointed for six years.

Towns. Rudolstadt, Frankenhausen, and Studt-Hilm are the principal towns in the country. Rudolstadt contains 4600 inhabitants. It is the residence of the prince, and several valuable collections are contained in the royal castle. The town is watered by the Saale; it possesses a museum of natural history, a library of 50,000 volumes, a gymnasium, and a school for the education of poor children. It carries on a trade in earthenware and woollen stuffs. Frankenhausen, on the Wipper, the place at which the legislative assembly meets, is peopled by 3600 individuals. Saint Hilm, or Hilm, bears the name of the river that waters it. Its 2000 inhabitants are mostly employed in manufacturing different sorts of woollen stuffs. Two towns, Heringen and Kalbra, in the government of Erfurt, containing each about 1700 inhabitants, belong jointly to the prince Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, the count of Stollberg, and the king of Prussia.

The principality of Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen is equal in extent to two hundred and ninety-four English square miles; the number of troops amounts to four hundred men, the revenue to 28,125*l.*, and Hassel estimates the population at 46,500 inhabitants. It may be thus seen, that, although it possesses a higher revenue than the former dutchy, its population is not so great. It is surrounded by the Prussian province of Saxony; the soil is productive; some mountains are situated in the northern extremity, they are composed of sandstone and ancient calcareous rocks. | Principality of Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen.

Sonderhausen, or the capital, is built at the confluence of the Wipper and Bober. It has its gymnasium, theatre, and collection of natural history; it contains upwards of 3400 inhabitants. The castle of the prince, the baths of Gunther, and a sulphureous stream are situated near the town. Several linen manufactories have been built at Greussen, a town of 2000 inhabitants. The most of the fields in the neighbourhood are planted with lint. Arnstadt is the most important town in the dutchy; the Gera divides it into two parts. The electoral colleges meet there; the principal institutions and buildings are a lyceum, a collection of natural history, a castle, an orphan hospital, and three churches. Its manufactures consist of coarse linen and brass wire, and its trade is considerable in proportion to its size. The most valuable copper mines in the country are situated in the neighbourhood of the town. | Towns.

The family of Reuss consists of several princes; the largest principality belongs to the elder branch; the younger is subdivided into several families, whose states are very unequal, both in point of population and superficial extent. Genealogists have traced the origin of the family to the year 950, and they suppose it to be descended from Eckbert, count of Osterode in Hartz. It has been affirmed that the name of Reuss or Ruzzo was originally a surname given to one of these princes, who accompanied the emperor Frederick the Second to the holy war about the year 1238. The same prince was taken prisoner by the Mussulmans, and sold as a slave to a *Russian* merchant, who conveyed him to Russia. After having passed twelve years in a state of slavery, the Tartars made an incursion into the part of Russia where he resided, and brought him to Poland and Silesia, from whence he made his escape, and fled to the court of the emperor. He retained a surname that reminded him of his misfortunes, and transmitted it to his two sons, from whom the two branches of the family are descended.[a] | Principality of Reuss.

The territory of Reuss-Greitz, contiguous to the kingdom of Saxony, belongs to the eldest branch of the same family. Its surface may be equal to a hundred and twenty-seven English square miles; its population amounts to 23,000 inhabitants; its revenue to 140,000 florins, and its contingent for the Germanic confederation to 200 men. Its territory, in which hills and valleys are interspersed, is fruitful in corn. The inhabitants are very industrious, they are employed in manufacturing woollen stuffs, working metals, and preparing steel. Greitz, the capital, situated in an agreeable and fruitful valley near the Elster, contains 6000 individuals. Zeulenrode, a trading town of 3600 inhabitants, has an arsenal and a hospital. These are the only two towns in the principality. | Reuss-Greitz.

The changes that have been made since 1814, in the limits of the possessions belonging to the younger branches of the Reuss family, have not been mentioned in recent geographical works.[b] The two younger branches of that house are the families of Reuss-Schleiz and Reuss- | Reuss-Schleiz.

[a] Zopfen, Reussiche Geravische Stadtund Land-Chronica, 1678.

[b] Nothing is said concerning the new division of the possessions of the younger line of Reuss, in Pinkerton's Abridgment of Modern Geography, edited by M. M. C. A. Walckenaer and J. B. Eyries, and published in 1827. M. Ad. Balbi was the first who took notice of it. See Tableau de la Balance politique du globe.

Lobenstein-Ebersdorf. It is perhaps unnecessary to mention the separate branch of Reuss-Kœstritz, that possesses under the sovereignty of Reuss-Schleiz, the territory attached to Markhohenleuben, a small town of 2000 inhabitants, and the burgh of Kœstritz, on the Elster, that carries on a trade in ale and beer. The principality of Reuss-Schleiz, together with half the territory of Gera, is not much less than a hundred and sixty-two English square miles, and the number of inhabitants amounts to 28,000. The capital, or Schleiz, is built on the Wiesenthal; it contains 4600 individuals, and has its cloth, linen, and muslin manufactories. Two small seignories in Silesia, and some villages in the province of Brandenburg, and kingdom of Saxony, belong to the prince of Reuss-Schleiz; their total population may be equal to 7500 souls.

Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf.

A territory of a hundred and ninety-two English square miles, including the half of Gera, makes up the principality of Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf. Although larger than the former, its population, according to the nearest approximations, does not exceed 27,000 inhabitants. The territory yields a sufficient quantity of metal to supply several important iron works; it is also well supplied with alum and vitriol, the sale of which forms not the least valuable portion of its commerce. Lobenstein, or the residence of the prince, is peopled by 2800 inhabitants; the trade of the place consists in leather, cotton and woollen stuffs. Ebersdorf, though only a burgh, has derived considerable wealth from its trade in cotton manufactures, soap, and tobacco.

Gera.

Gera, which, together with its territory, belongs in common to the two princes of the younger line of Reuss, may be called a place of some importance, when contrasted with the two capitals that have been last mentioned. The inhabitants are rich and industrious, and, although the town was almost wholly destroyed by fire in the year 1780, it has been much improved since that period; its commerce too has increased so rapidly, that it is now called in Germany *Little Leipsig*. Its population in 1822, amounted, according to Hassel, to 7373 individuals. It contains a house of correction, a gymnasium, and several schools, one of which is reserved for the children of the poor. But its wealth depends on its cotton and woollen goods, its porcelain, earthenware, and leather. The town and manufactories are mostly supplied with water from the Elster, on which it is built. The territory of Gera is contiguous to Prussia, and the dutchies of Saxe-Altenburg and Weimar. The other territories, that form the different principalities of Reuss, are bounded by the kingdom of Saxony on the east, by the two last mentioned dutchies on the north, by the Prussian principality of Saafeld, and part of Swartzburg on the west, and lastly, by Bavaria on the south.

Revenue.

The revenues of Reuss-Schleiz and Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf, are together equal to 340,000 florins, such at least appears to be the opinion of M. Hassel; the contingent of troops that they furnish to the confederation, was fixed at five hundred men.

The house of Anhalt is one of those that claim Wittikind for their founder. It boasts, in common with many other families, of being the most ancient in Europe. Limneus,[1] a learned German lawyer, does not hesitate to carry it back to Ascanus or Ascenazus, the son of Gomer, and grandson of Japhet, the son of Noah. It seems unnecessary to stop at the flood, it might have been easy to trace it from Noah to the first man mentioned in Genesis. Erudition is liable to many errors, if it be not guided by judgment; it has prompted more than one author to remove the impenetrable veil that conceals the origin of nations and families. Some genealogists in their attempts to trace the origin of the ancient counts of Ascania, from whom the dukes of Anhalt are descended, have imagined that certain tribes in

[1] Notitia imperii.

Asia Minor, quitted the marshes of Ascania, in Bithynia, and settled in the ancient forests of Germany. Hence the origin of Ascenazus, a chief of the Ascanian tribes, whose descent has been deduced from a grandson of Noah. The confidence due to these etymological researches, can now be rightly ascertained; such writers as Salverte and Balbi have not disdained to prove their futility.[k] As to the origin of the dukes of Anhalt, it has been affirmed that they are descended from Esikon, a count of Ballenstedt, who flourished in the eleventh century. The filiation of the family may be traced to Henry, first prince of Anhalt, or in other words, to the commencement of the thirteenth century.[l] The family has been since divided into three branches, those of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Kœthen, three different dutchies, which may be shortly described.

Anhalt-Dessau.

The first, or Anhalt-Dessau, consists of several detached territories on the banks of the Elbe and the Mulda. Eight towns, two burghs, a hundred and fifteen villages and hamlets are scattered, over a surface of two hundred and seventy square miles. It contained in 1822, a population, which, according to Hassel, amounted to 56,290 inhabitants.

Soil.

The land is of the secondary formation, composed chiefly of ancient calcareous rocks, sandstone, and a sort of argil well adapted for porcelain and earthenware. The agricultural produce is modified by the nature of the soil, which is very different in different parts of the country. Many low and humid places are covered with marshes and lakes; the land in others is light and sandy. The crops consist of grain, lint, potatoes, and hops. The cattle, particularly the sheep, are often exposed to epidemic diseases. The rot was so prevalent in 1815, that a regulation of government made it imperative on most of the proprietors to inoculate their sheep, a measure which checked the ravages of the contagious virus.

Industry.

There are several breweries, tobacco works, and not fewer than a hundred and twenty cloth manufactories in the dutchy. Oil and paper mills, earthen works, and distilleries have been erected in several parts of the country. The exports are oil, carrot seeds, corn, fruits, wool, cattle and fish. Stein supposes that the exports are equivalent in value to 500,000 rix-dollars, and the imposts to 1,000,000. According to the same author, the military force consists of 800 men, and Hassel does not consider its revenue less than 710,000 florins.

Towns.

Dessau, on the Mulda, is a well-built town, containing a population of nearly 20,000 individuals. The streets are broad and straight, and the number of squares is not less than seven. There are four churches, a synagogue, three hospitals, one for orphans, and another for the poor, a house of industry, public baths, several schools, and some manufactories. The ducal palace is the finest public building. Warlitz, a small town of two thousand inhabitants, is adorned with a large castle and extensive gardens belonging to the duke. Zerbst, on the banks of the Elbe, contains 7300 inhabitants; it possesses a gymnasium, and perhaps the most ancient Protestant school in Germany, it was endowed more than three hundred years ago.

Dutchy of Anhalt-Bernburg.

The dutchy of Anhalt-Bernburg is formed by several detached districts, their surface may amount to two hundred and sixty-four square miles. The population has been estimated by Hassel at 38,400 inhabitants, who are distributed in seven towns and fifty-four villages. The land on the west is mountainous and covered with forests; fruitful fields and extensive plains, make up the greater portion of the eastern districts. The climate is temperate, particularly in the eastern part; the opposite extremity, which extends to the sides of the Hartz mountains, is subject to more severe cold. Many mines are worked in the coun-

[k] Introduction a l'atlas ethnographique de Balbi. [l] Dictionnaire de Moreri. Article Ascarie.

try, and some of them are very profitable. The agricultural products are nearly the same as those in the last dutchy. The people are engaged in different branches of industry; several manufactories, iron, steel, wire, and sulphate of copper, or vitriol, are exported.

Towns. | Bernburg, or the capital, is the most important town in the principality; placed on the side of a hill, and watered by the Saale, it is divided into three separate quarters, two of which are encompassed with walls; the third commands the other two, and the ducal castle, or the residence of the prince, is situated in that part of the town. Bernburg is well built, it contains different manufactories, and carries on a trade in earthenware and tobacco. The population, according to Hassel's estimate, cannot be less than 5340 individuals. Several extensive vineyards are planted in the neighbouring country. Ballenstedt is adorned with an ancient ducal castle, the only remarkable edifice in that gloomy and ill-built city. Harzgerode, another small town, peopled by 2200 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in working the silver and iron mines in the vicinity, is situated at the height of 1400 feet above the level of the sea; one of the mines near Mœdchensprung yields annually about twelve hundred marks of silver. At no great distance from it is an obelisk of 58 feet in height, raised to the memory of the late duke by his successor. A body of four hundred men forms the military force of the dutchy of Anhalt-Bernburg; the revenue has been valued at 450,000 florins.

Anhalt-Kœthen. | The territory of Anhalt-Kœthen is equal to two hundred and twenty-eight English square miles in superficial extent; there are four towns, one burgh, and ninety-three villages in the dutchy. The population amounted in 1822, to 33,500 inhabitants. The greater part of the land is low and fruitful, but the people are not so industrious as in the other dutchies; linen and woollen stuffs are the principal manufactories. The revenue, including that derived from the ducal domains, may be equal to 320,000 florins. The armed force consists of four hundred foot soldiers.

Towns. | Kœthen, or Cœthen, the chief town of the dutchy, is situated on the banks of the Zittau, and contains a population of 5500 souls. The prince resides in the capital, in which there are several seminaries, a normal school, and a gallery of paintings. The people carry on a trade in woollen stuffs, gold and silver thread, embroidered work and lace.

Dutchy of Brunswick. | The greater portion of the dutchy of Brunswick is formed by a territory bounded by Prussia on the east and the south, and by Hanover on the north and the west. The possessions attached to it are the districts of Blankenburg, on the Hartz mountains, contiguous to Anhalt, and the kingdom of Hanover; secondly, the territory of Ganderzein, on the south-west of Brunswick, surrounded by Hanover; thirdly, Thedinghausen, on the banks of the Weser, near the centre of the same kingdom; lastly, Kalwœrde, a district encompassed by the Prussian province of Saxony. All these possessions form together a superficial extent of one thousand one hundred and eighty-two English square miles, and the population, according to Hassel, amounts to two hundred and thirty-four thousand four hundred inhabitants.

Soil. | The principal part of the dutchy, which includes the territories of Brunswick, Helmstœdt, and Wolfenbüttel, consists of lands that are different in their geological structure. Large calcareous deposites extend to the north of the capital, they belong to what geologists have termed the third formation. Lands of the second formation, in which the *muschelkalk* and *quadersandstein* of the Germans are not uncommon, serve as a support for these rocks on the south. The country is intersected with chains of hills. The granite branches of the Hartz extend across the territory of Blankenburg, and their sides are covered with forests. The valleys in the district of Ganderzein yield rich harvests; the fields in

Thedinghausen are low and fruitful; Kalwoede is not broken by hills, and the soil abounds with sand.

The mineral wealth of the principality consists in different metals, such as iron, lead, copper, mercury, and even gold and silver. Besides these substances, marble, gypsum, rock-salt, lime, and potter's clay are obtained in different parts of the country. The soil in general is fruitful, and affords in many places rich pasturage. The agriculture of the country has been much improved; the crops consist of different kinds of grain, turnips, hops, madder, tobacco, and endive. The last plant serves for two purposes, it is mixed with coffee, and used in preparing silk. The trade of the dutchy is very considerable; the manufactures are cloth, linen and silk, oil and paper, wrought iron, glass, crystal, and porcelain. The revenue has sometimes exceeded two hundred and fifty thousand pounds. The army is composed of two thousand men. | Mines.

The house of Brunswick is descended from Azo, marquis of Este in Tuscany, who lived in the eleventh century.[m] The same house has given dukes to Saxony and Bavaria, and a younger branch of the family has been raised to the throne of England. | Origin of the ducal family.

Brunswick or *Braunschweig*, the capital of the dutchy, is situated on a large plain, and watered by the Ocker, which divides it in several places. Some writers affirm that it was founded by Brunon, son of Adolphus, duke of Saxony, after whom it has been called. The streets are broad and straight, and the most of it is well built. The town and the different suburbs occupy a great superficial extent, and the population exceeds 32,000 individuals. There are twelve churches and the same number of squares, that of Burg is adorned by a bronze lion, which was founded in the twelfth century by order of Henry the Third, surnamed the Lion. The palace, the arsenal, the cathedral, that contains the tombs of the ducal family, and the Gothic townhouse, are the principal buildings; but the church of St. Andrew ought to be mentioned; its tower reaches to the height of three hundred and eighteen feet. Among the institutions are a military school and other seminaries; it possesses several valuable collections, one of antiquities, another of natural history, and a third of engravings; in the last are preserved the coat and the sword of the duke of Brunswick, who was killed at the battle of Ligny in 1815. It is believed that the spinning wheel was invented at Brunswick in the year 1534. Coffee mixed with endive, was first introduced in the same place, and it came into general use about sixty years ago. The town carries on a trade in cloth and linen. | Brunswick. | Spinning wheel invented.

Wolfenbüttel, a fortified place on the Ocker, contains an arsenal, a gymnasium, and a valuable library, in the court of which a monument has been erected to the memory of Lessing. Its trade consists in tobacco, and also in linen and woollen stuffs. The population amounts to 7000 inhabitants. | Wolfenbuttel.

Scheppenstœdt, though well built, is not a place of any importance. Helmstædt contains about 5300 inhabitants, and many of them are employed in different manufactories; the baths of Amelia are situated in an agreeable valley near the town. The botanist may find many rare plants at no great distance from them; the geologist may discover the bones of antediluvian elephants in the alluvial lands near the village of Thiede, and the antiquary may observe on the Cornelius-Berg, many of those stones placed vertically, which are commonly supposed to have been raised by the Druids. | Other Towns.

Blankenburg, a small town with a college, two churches, and large iron storehouses, is situated in the mountainous region, where the last branches of the Hartz chain terminate. It is commanded | Blankenburg.

[m] Moreri's Dictionary.—Article, Brunswick.

by a height on which one of the largest castles in Germany has been built. The same castle belonged to the princes of Blankenburg, and it was for some years the residence of the king to whom France was indebted for its constitutional charter.

Principality of Waldeck. | The territories belonging to the princes of Waldeck, are the counties of Waldeck and Pyrmont, forming together a superficial extent of three hundred and sixty-eight English square miles. They are peopled by fifty-four thousand inhabitants, and governed by the descendants of Wittikind, count of Swalenberg and Waldeck, who lived in the time of Charlemagne.

Soil. | The ancient county of Waldeck, which forms the greater part of the principality, is one of the highest countries in Germany. It lies between Hesse and the Prussian province of Westphalia. The Rothaar and Egge mountains, which with their ramifications extend from the south-west to the north-east of the country, belong to the granite formation. The highest summits are those of Poen and Dummel. Several extinguished volcanoes are situated in the western part of the county, but none of them are so large as the Lammsberg. It may be inferred, from what has been already said, that the country is stony and unfruitful. The air, though keen, is salubrious. Several mines, as well as marble and slate quarries, are worked in the mountains. Particles of gold are found in the channels of the rivers that water the valleys. Thermal and medicinal springs have been discovered in several places.

Produce. | The agricultural products are not valuable, they consist of potatoes and different kinds of grain; wheat, however, is sufficiently abundant to form an article of exportation. The industrious classes are employed in spinning wool, manufacturing woollen stuffs, working the mines, and making paper.

The chain of the Egge mountains terminates in the county of Pyrmont, between the principality of Lippe-Detmold, and the country belonging to the duke of Brunswick. That petty territory is mountainous and covered with forests; its extent may be equal to thirty English square miles, and it contains about 5000 inhabitants. The principal export consists in worsted stockings, which are knit by the people.

Revenue. | The revenue of the principality of Waldeck amounts to 400,000 florins or 40,000*l.*, and the military contingent which it furnishes to the Germanic confederation does not exceed 500 men. A representative government was established in 1816; the deputies are appointed by the possessors of baronial estates, the other landed proprietors, the peasantry, and the burgesses of thirteen towns. An assembly is held every year, and it is the duty of the members to examine the budget, impose taxes, propose laws, which are submitted to the prince, and to suggest any measures for the improvement of the country.

Towns. | Corbach, which contains only 2000 inhabitants, has been considered the capital; it is well fortified and surrounded with walls; it possesses a gymnasium and other useful institutions. A Lutheran convent has been established at Schacken, and the abbess is generally selected from the princesses of the house of Waldec. Holsen, though well built, and the ordinary residence of the prince, is not peopled by more than 1500 inhabitants. A colony of quakers have settled in the village of Friedensthal; they carry on a trade in steel and different articles of cutlery. Pyrmont or Neustadt Pyrmont, a place of 2400 inhabitants, has been frequented since the fifteenth century on account of its mineral water. The various places of amusement, the strangers that resort to it in the gay season, and their number exceeds sometimes 2000, give it the appearance of an important town. The public walks are formed by several rows of lime trees. The prince possesses a country-house in the vicinity. Pyr-

mont exports annually 300,000 bottles of mineral water, and the duties levied on them amount to 12,000 rix-dollars.

Dutchy of Nassau.

The dutchy of Nassau is bounded on the west and the north by the Prussian provinces on the Rhine, on the east and the south by the territories of Wetzlar and the principalities of Hesse. Hassel, Crome and Leichtenstein differ concerning the extent of the dutchy; it may be best to take the mean term of their calculations, and to assume that its surface is equal to one thousand six hundred and fifty English square miles. The population, it has been ascertained, amounts to 320,147 individuals.[a] The wealth of the country may be estimated by the number of its inhabitants, which amounts on an average to a hundred and ninety-four persons for every English square mile, a proportion that places it on a level with the most flourishing states in Europe. The revenue, relatively to the resources and extent of Nassau, is not so great as in some of the principalities that have been described; but it is equally true that lighter taxes and contributions are imposed on the people. The military establishment consists of 3000 men. The government is representative; the legislative and executive departments are formed by a chamber of peers nominated during life by the prince, and a chamber of deputies that are elected by the different districts.

Soil.

The lands in the dutchy are composed of granite, limestone and volcanic rocks. The greater portion of the territory is mountainous, there are few plains, and none of them are large. The heights connected with the Westerwald, reach to the western limits of the country; their sides and summits are covered with trees. The chain and branches of Taunus extend to the south, and the Salzburger-Kopf, or the highest hill in the dutchy, is not less than two thousand feet above the level of the sea. Small but fruitful valleys are situated between the heights.

Products.

Silver, copper, iron and lead mines, marble quarries, coal and mineral waters, form the natural wealth of the dutchy. The crops consist of corn, fruits, excellent wine, gall-nuts, hemp and lint. There are many cloth and linen manufactories, several paper mills, iron and copper works.

Dukes of Nassau.

The house of Nassau is very ancient; the founder, it has been supposed, was Otho, count of Laurenburg, the general of the imperial army sent into Hungary by Henry the Fowler, in the year 926. The same Otho was styled prince of Nassau by Moreri,* but the burgh was not founded until after his death. It was not earlier than the year 1182, that the descendants of Otho took the title of counts of Nassau, from the name of a castle built in the preceding century near the site of the town. The same family, so illustrious from the great men that are sprung from it, was formerly divided into several branches, two only remain at present. The first or that of Orange is descended from Otho; the second or the branch of Weilburg claims Walram for their founder. The family of Orange, which has now ascended the throne of the Netherlands, retains its sovereignty over the dutchy of Nassau; and although the latter

[a] The following details have been copied from the *Ephimerides geographiques* of Weimar, (tom. III. page 316.)

Families,	77,177
Men,	61,521
Women,	67,235
Male Children,	85,855
Female Children,	83,096
Workmen,	3,611
Men Servants,	6,041
Women Servants,	12,541

* Moreri's Dictionary.—Article, Nassau.

country is governed by a member of the Weilburg branch, he acknowledges that his rights are derived from the king of the Netherlands. The territory of Nassau was erected into a dutchy at the time that the confederation of the Rhine was established. It contains thirty towns, twenty-seven burghs, and eight hundred and seven villages.

Towns. Braubach and Holzappel may be mentioned among the number of the towns; silver mines are worked in their vicinity, and their annual produce amounts to more than eighty thousand florins or eight thousand pounds. Ditz has risen into notice from its agricultural school. Dillenburg, so called from the Dillen that flows through it, possesses several copper foundries. Weilburg, situated on a hill, the base of which is watered by the Lahn, is a small town with a gymnasium; silver, copper and iron mines are wrought in the neighbourhood. The population in each of these towns varies from two thousand to two thousand six hundred inhabitants.

Capital. Weisbaden or the capital contains more than 6000 individuals; encompassed with hills and romantic scenery, and defended by two castles; it is enriched by the profits derived from fourteen thermal springs, and the wealth of the numerous strangers that resort to them. If it be not admitted that its baths were known to the Romans, it might be difficult to account for the ancient tombs and the many relics of antiquity that have been found near the town. The most useful institution may be said to be a hospital for the aged and infirm poor. As to the other mineral springs in the dutchy, the one at Selters is known throughout Europe; it has exported in some years more than 800,000 bottles of water, a trade that forms the principal wealth of the village, which is situated on the Embach.

BOOK CXXII.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of Wirtemberg.—Great dutchy of Baden.—Principalities of Hohenzollern-Heckingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, and Liechtenstein.

The countries we are about to examine, are more extensive than the petty states which were last described, but they were not less subdivided, before Baden was erected into a great dutchy, and Wirtemberg and Bavaria into kingdoms. The circle of Franconia comprehended the margraviates of Anspach and Bayreuth, as well as the free territory attached to the town of Nuremburg. The dutchy of Wirtemberg, the margraviates of Baden and the imperial towns of Ulm and Augsburg, made up the circle of Suabia; lastly, the circle of Bavaria was formed by the electorate of Bavaria, the bishoprics of Salzburg, Passau and Freysingen, and the possessions of Ratisbon, once a free town.

Recent divisions. The changes in the territorial division in that part of Germany, as well as in other countries, were occasioned by the preponderance which France possessed in Europe, under the reign of Napoleon. In consequence of the treaty concluded at Presburg in 1805, the government of these ancient circles and free territories was changed; the small principalities of Liechtenstein and Hohenzollern, retained their privileges, but Baden was raised into a great dutchy, Bavaria and Wirtemberg were made kingdoms within the Germanic confederation. Some alterations in the limits of these states have been necessarily occasioned by

the last treaties, and they have acquired from their new organization, a greater influence than they possessed under the protection of France. Bavaria, which is still a powerful kingdom, holds, after Prussia, the first rank in the confederation. It shall be described in the next chapter.

Kingdom of Wirtemberg.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg is situated between Bavaria and the great dutchy of Saxony. Roesch considers its greatest length to be equal to three hundred and forty-eight geographical miles; it is not less than five thousand eight hundred and twelve English square miles in superficial extent. The greater portion of it is covered with hills, or indented with plains, the largest of which are watered by the Neckar. A branch of the Schwarz-Wald or Black Forest, forms for the distance of seventy miles, the western limit of the kingdom.

Geology.

That chain composed of granite rocks, is of a higher elevation than the Rauhe-Alb, another range, formed by limestone of the second formation; it has been incorrectly called the Suabian Alps by French geographers. These two chains are branches of a higher range that commences at the banks of the Rhine, opposite Bale, and forms by a bifurcation the natural boundary of Wirtemberg on the south-west. The elevation of some of these mountains may be mentioned; the Katzenkopf, or Head of the Cat, is more than 3000 feet above the level of the sea;[p] the Stornberg is about 2776, the Rossberg, 2689, the Hohenzollern, 2621, the Kniebis, 2565, the Teck, 2327, the Stuifenberg, 2315, and the Neuffen, 2263.[q]

Climate.

The climate is, in general, mild and temperate, but in the heights and forests, the atmosphere is cold, and the winters are of longer duration. The rivers that rise from the mountains are the Neckar and the Enz, the Fils and the Rems, the Kocher and the Jaxt, a feeder of the Neckar, the Danube, together with several small rivers, as the Riess, the Roth and the Iller.

Fossil remains.

The fossil bones of elephants and other antediluvian animals have been discovered on the valley of the Neckar, in the neighbourhood of Canstadt.

Lakes.

The Federsee is the largest lake in the interior of Wirtemberg; we shall not mention the lake of Constance, which forms merely the southern limit of the kingdom.

Ancient inhabitants.

Ammianus Marcellinus and other ancient writers[r] make mention of the Alemanni, that inhabited the country between the Upper Danube, the Upper Rhine and the Maine. That country forms, at present, the great dutchy of Baden, and the kingdom of Wirtemberg. The *Alemanni*, *Alamanni*, or *Alambani*, as they are sometimes called by the ancients, were the ancestors of the people that now inhabit the states governed by the king of Wirtemberg. Agathias and Jornandes,[s] who lived under the reign of the emperor Justinian, have left us much valuable information concerning these barbarous tribes. The first explains the meaning of their name, and tells us that Allemanni signifies a junction or union of different nations in Germany; in short, it seems to be derived from *all* and *mann*, two words nearly alike, both in German and English. The Allemanni were probably descended from the Suevi. Their government was monarchical, or at all events, they chose a chief when they began a war; their religion was the same as that of the other Germans, but they were distinguished from them by their fierce and warlike customs. Their hatred against the Romans, excited them to many acts of cruelty, which were committed against their prisoners. Caracalla defeated them, but could not make them submit to his authority, and it was only by means of bribery that some were gained into his service. They made themselves

[p] See Wurtembergische Juhrbücher für vaterhendische Geschluchte, by Mermmingen, 1823. [q] Stein's Geography. [r] Rer. gest. XXVIII. 5. [s] De reb. get. 17.

masters of the forts, which the Romans built on the Rhine, and laid waste part of Gaul during the third century. Their country was afterwards desolated, and they themselves conquered by Maximin. Their history indeed exhibits a succession of victories and defeats, until nearly the end of the fourth century, when they submitted to Maxentius.

Princes of Wirtemberg. | Wirtemberg was formed into a county in the circle of Suabia about the middle of the eleventh century.[t] The emperor Maximilian changed it into a dutchy in the year 1495. Many of the inhabitants embraced the reformation under Ulric the Eighth, who took an active part in the league of Smalkalden. The number of protestants at present in the kingdom is supposed to be more than a million.

Productions. | The kingdom of Wirtemberg abounds in mines, marble, and different kinds of limestone that are used in building; it is also well supplied with coal, sulphur, salt and mineral springs. The land yields good harvests, and more than a half of it is in cultivation. The vineyards take up nearly a fiftieth part, the meadows about a seventh, and the forests occupy the rest of the country. The landed proprietors rear a great number of horses, oxen, pigs and sheep; merinos have been introduced, and are found to succeed.

Game. | The woods and the fields were so much overrun with game, that government found it necessary in 1817 to encourage the destruction of hares, rabbits and other kinds of game by which the crops were injured. The keepers of the forests are obliged to recompense the farmers for any injury that these animals may occasion. Two persons are appointed in every village, and their sole occupation is to destroy game.

Manufactures. | There are many manufactories in Wirtemberg, but none of them are very important. The articles manufactured in the plains or low districts are cotton, linen and woollen stuffs; many watches are made in the high country; and paper mills, leather and iron works may be seen in the valleys.

Spirits. | But another and very important trade consists in spirits; there are not fewer than thirty distilleries in the district of Heilbronn, two hundred and twenty-six in Bahlingen, and sixty-three in Biberach. The spirits made in these distilleries, are not obtained from wine, potatoes or grain, but extracted from the fruit of the small cherry trees that increase so readily on the mountains in the Black Forest. That spirituous liquor is generally known by the name of *Kirchen-Wasser*. The quantity consumed in the country, and exported every year, is sold for 130,000 florins or 13,000*l*. It furnishes the means of subsistence to a hundred and twenty families among the lower orders of society. It may be doubtful whether this German liqueur can be commended, but it is not the less certain that the inhabitants of the Schwarz-Wald ought to raise a monument in memory of Thomas Leodgar, who invented it, and to whom the people are indebted for their wealth.

Commerce. | The commerce of the kingdom consists chiefly in the exportation of its wood, wines, grain, dried fruits, leather, linen and kirchen-wasser, and also of the watches and wooden clocks, that are made in the high districts. The countries, to which most of these exports are sent, are Swisserland, France, Bavaria and Austria. It receives in exchange, cloth, oil, fine wool, raw and dressed silk, tobacco and colonial produce.

Inland trade. | As to the inland trade, it is believed to be protected by the different custom-houses, by excluding foreign competition, and by the monopoly which government has imposed on certain articles. Thus, the cotton cloth, known by the name of the Chinese town in which it is

[t] Moreri's Dictionary—Article, Wirtemberg.

made, cannot enter the kingdom; unworked iron cannot be exported from it; salt and tobacco are sold exclusively by government. For the purpose of encouraging commerce, a uniform system of weights and measures, founded on the decimal division, was established. The management of the roads is committed to government, and some attempts have lately been made to improve them. Commercial communications are likewise facilitated by navigable rivers.

M. Memminger[a] supposes the value of all the mercantile goods in the kingdom, equal to thirty-three millions of florins, or three millions three hundred thousand pounds sterling; the natural products, according to the same author, amount to sixteen millions, and the manufactured to seventeen millions of florins.

Revenue.

It appears from the statistics of M. Hassel that the revenue in 1821 was not less than 8,300,000 florins,[x] from which if the sum derived from the domains and forests be deducted, 5,681,000 remain, the amount of all the taxes and contributions, that are imposed on the people; so that on an average, every individual in the kingdom pays annually four florins or eight shillings in the shape of taxes. The expenditure has been estimated at 7,900,000 florins,[y] including what is put into the sinking fund, and the interest on the national debt, which at the time was not supposed to be greater than 20,000,000 florins. But it must have considerably increased within the short period of two years, for, if a report made to the chambers in 1823 be correct, it was then equal to 25,679,616 florins. The revenue, although sometimes higher than in 1821, has more frequently been lower; in 1824, one of the most prosperous years, it exceeded 10,028,000 florins.[a]

Emigration.

The harvests have more than once so completely failed, that government has been obliged to remit the taxes in several districts; the same cause has induced many individuals to emigrate to America and the southern provinces of Russia. Stein[a] assures us that upwards of twelve thousand persons emigrated during the first four months of the year 1817. But it must be admitted that a considerable number were influenced by religious notions; the aurora borealis, which appeared at different times in Wirtemberg, during the month of February in the same year, was considered a sign or an injunction of the Lord, by which the people were commanded to leave the country.

Army.

It was determined in 1819 that the army should consist of nineteen thousand men in time of war, and six thousand in time of peace, exclusively of three hundred and seventy gensdarmes. The contingent, which the state furnishes to the confederation, amounts to fourteen thousand men. It ought to be mentioned that a law was passed nineteen years ago, rendering it imperative on every bachelor from the age of twenty to forty, to enter the militia, which is made up of sixty

[a] Wurtembergische Jahr-bucher, &c. 1824.

[x] The following details are subjoined.

	Florins.
Domains	2,268,000
Direct taxes	2,000,000
Indirect taxes	2,530,000
Forests	351,000
Saltpetre and salt mines	94,000
Post office	69,000
Different receipts	404,000
Receipts in arrear	561,000
Total	8,300,000

[y] Some of the items may be mentioned, for the civil list, 666,000 florins, for the ordinary appendages of the royal family, 309,000, for the war department, 1,855,000.

[z] See Allgem. Deutche Justis Kammer, &c. &c. February, 1825.

[a] Stein's Geography.

cohorts, and each cohort of a thousand men. Those who have attained the age of forty, form a corps of reserve. The time fixed for the military service is ten years for the cavalry, and eight for the infantry. Officers were entitled to inflict corporal punishment on the soldiers, a privilege which has often been abused in the German armies. Government considered that a method of punishment so humiliating to private soldiers, was not tolerated in despotic countries, it was therefore abolished about twelve years ago; at present, no man in the army can be punished without the sentence of a court-martial. It was fixed by a law passed in 1812, that the widows of sub-lieutenants and soldiers, who had been slain in the field of battle, should be entitled to a pension equivalent to the pay of their husbands; their children too may be brought up at the royal hospitals at Stuttgart or Ludwigsburg, if their relatives are unable to maintain them.

Population. Some notion of the number of inhabitants in Wirtemberg may be formed from the military force. Hassel estimated the population in 1822, at one million four hundred and forty-six thousand individuals, consisting principally of Germans, Wends, and Jews.[b] But the number of inhabitants has increased since that period, and it appears from the excess of the births above the deaths, that the population amounted in 1826 to 1,517,700 souls, from which it follows that the average number of individuals for every English square mile, is upwards of two hundred and sixty-one, a number that places Wirtemberg on a level with the most populous states in Europe.

Fire-arms. A law, by which many before the year 1817, were prevented from having fire-arms in their possession, has been wisely modified. That privilege is granted at present not only to landed proprietors, their stewards, the officers of government, and the huntsmen appointed by the districts, but also to the proprietors of isolated houses, and manufactories. Each burgh may dispose of a certain number of guns, that are intrusted to the mayor, who gives them to any that wish to destroy noxious animals, or to guard their property against the depredations of thieves.

Liberty of the press. The press is not wholly free in the kingdom of Wirtemberg; but the restrictions imposed on it, indicate on the part of government, rather the desire of diffusing instruction and the light of knowledge, than the dread of any imaginary abuses, that may arise from a privilege which has now become necessary to the inhabitants of a civilized state. According to a law passed on the 30th of January, 1817, any work may be published that contains nothing contrary to religion and the public tranquillity. The journals are equally free in time of peace, but during war they must be examined by censors. It is the duty of the crown lawyers to prosecute the authors of blasphemous and immoral works, writings, of which the tendency is to calumniate private characters, attack the conduct of the king, his ministers, the members of the chambers, and the representatives of foreign powers.

Education. Government deserves to be commended for its zeal in diffusing knowledge among the different classes of the community. There is hardly a town of any size in the kingdom without a

[b] In the above number are included 703,400 males and 740,600 females. The tables of M. Hassel enable us to arrive at an approximation concerning the number of the different classes.

Nobles,	1,700
Burgesses and householders,	1,193,300
Artisans,	108,000
Labourers and vine-dressers,	101,000
Day labourers and servants,	42,000
Total,	1,446,000

gymnasium, and not a small one without one or more schools. These institutions are attended by children from six to fourteen years of age, and schools of art are open for the instruction of mechanics. A gratuitous school has been established in every village, and school-masters repair twice or thrice a-week to the remote hamlets, where the pupils assemble in each other's houses. It may be affirmed indeed that almost all the children among the lower ranks of society are taught to read, write and cast accounts. The different seminaries are under the inspection of the clergymen and curates, but the scholars must be examined every year by professors, who are sent from Stuttgart and Tubingen. The schools for the lower orders are annually increasing; thus there were not more than two hundred and sixty in 1823, and the number of pupils did not exceed ten thousand and sixty-four; but in 1825, the number of schools amounted to three hundred and forty-two, and the scholars to fourteen thousand and eighty-seven. The masters of these institutions are mostly selected from the seminaries at Eslingen and Ehringhen, which may be considered normal schools. Clergymen superintend some places of education, but in general, those who devote themselves to the noble career of instructing youth, are educated and trained by men of distinguished merit. The sons of the lower orders, if they are desirous of following the ecclesiastical profession, and show any talent, for it is a matter of indifference whether they be catholic or protestant, are educated at the expense of government.

Orders of knighthood.

Two orders of knighthood have been instituted in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the honour, which the prince may thus confer, was intended as a reward for civil services and military merit. The officers who receive this distinction, wear a gold medal, and the soldiers a silver one. *Virtutis amicitiæque foedus* is the motto on the cross of the Golden Eagle, which was founded in 1704. The members are foreign princes or officers of high rank, and, according to the statutes of the order, an intimate union must subsist between them; they must assist each other in the field of battle if it be in their power, and perform good offices to one another in the ordinary occurrences of life. The number of knights is limited to fifty, but as none can be admitted that are not sprung from an ancient and noble family, the order of Merit was instituted in 1806 for those who cannot receive the decoration of the Golden Eagle. The members wear a medal with the inscription, *Bene merentibus*, and they are divided into great crosses, knights-commanders, and knights. These honorary distinctions, the influence of wealth, and the importance of civil employments, have contributed to form several distinct classes in the kingdom.

Constitution.

The dukes of Wirtemberg shared, since the commencement of the sixteenth century, the rights of sovereignty with the assembly of the states, which was formed by the fourteen highest ecclesiastics, and eighty-nine deputies from the towns and districts. When Napoleon raised the dutchy into a kingdom, the assembly was dissolved. But after the deliverance of Germany, to use a German phrase, or more correctly, after the establishment of a new Germanic confederation, the districts and the nobles claimed their privileges and a national representation, by which the power of the crown might be confined within proper bounds. According to the constitution, the king arrives at majority at eighteen years of age; his person is inviolable; he may be either a catholic or a protestant; to him only belongs the ratification of the laws, the right of administering justice, of making peace or war, and the command of the army.

Religious liberty.

Liberty of conscience, and equality among the different Christian communions, have been solemnly sanctioned by the constitution; and a very important privilege has thus been conferred on the different sects in the kingdom. No legislative enactment can be put into force, until it has been approved by the general assembly of the states; the same

body fixes the amount of taxes, and regulates the contribution; lastly, individual liberty has been guarantied, and the confiscation of property abolished.

Assembly. The assembly consists of thirteen members, who are chosen for life among the nobles, but one of that order cannot be elected if his annual income does not amount to fifty thousand florins, or five thousand pounds; the other members are six Protestant ecclesiastics, a Catholic bishop, two Catholic clergymen, and four lawyers. The deputies elected by the people, must have an income of eight thousand florins. Two hundred inhabitants of a town elect a deputy. They are appointed for six years, and that period can only be abridged by an extraordinary dissolution. A fund has been established, out of which the expenses of the assembly, and even the travelling expenses of the members, are defrayed. The deputies from the districts are elected by the landed proprietors, but no one can exercise his elective privileges, until he has completed his twenty-fifth year. Three members are chosen by the upper chamber, and as many by the lower, and out of that number the king nominates the speakers of the two houses.

Conservative council. Government has shown itself favourable to the representative system, and in order to preserve the principles on which it depends, a conservative council has been created. It consists chiefly of lawyers and magistrates; one-half of the members are appointed by the king, and the other by the lower chamber. The council passes judgment on the public functionaries and deputies, that are accused of acting unconstitutionally. It judges concerning differences that may arise between the ministers and the districts, concerning the interpretation of the constitutional laws. The districts may accuse the king's ministers, but they cannot make a public functionary resign his situation for a lower office, much less deprive him of it, unless he be guilty of a crime, or unfitted for the discharge of his public duties by want of capacity.

Divisions of the kingdom. The kingdom of Wirtemberg is divided into four circles, which bear the names of the rivers that water them, or the principal mountains that form the western boundary of the state. Thus, the circles of the Neckar and the Jaxt extend to the north; the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest, to the west, and the Danube to the south. Twelve provincial, and sixty-four subordinate courts of justice, have been instituted in these four great divisions of the kingdom. There are a hundred and thirty towns in Wirtemberg, a hundred and twenty-eight burghs, one thousand one hundred and fifteen villages, and two thousand four hundred and ten hamlets.

Towns. Stuttgart, the capital of the kingdom, rises in the middle of a fruitful valley, surrounded with hills and vineyards, on the banks of the Nesenbach. The town has been lately enlarged, and it contained in the year 1823, one thousand nine hundred and eighty houses, twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and eighty inhabitants, exclusively of the garrison. The streets are straight and broad, two of them are remarkable for their regularity, and the number of fine buildings. Stuttgart is the seat of the supreme courts in the kingdom, and the king possesses two palaces, one of which, or the more modern, has been much admired for its architecture and the magnificence of its interior; a collection of natural history is contained in the other. The buildings that ought to be mentioned, are the principal church, the exchequer, and the opera. The useful institutions are a library containing 20,000 volumes, a collection of twelve thousand bibles, and a great number of manuscripts, a museum of arts, an academy of paintings, and a botanic garden. The commerce of the capital consists principally in cloth and linen.

[c] See Umriss zur erd und Staatenkunde, &c. by Hoffman.

The small town of Eslingen may vie with Stuttgart in the beauty of its situation; encompassed by vineyards or forests, and watered by the Neckar, it was formerly among the number of free cities; it contains, at present, a court of justice, and its population amounts to 5600 inhabitants.

If we follow the winding course of the Neckar, we remark on its left bank, and at the distance of eight miles to the north of Stuttgart, the town of Ludwigsburg, a royal residence, peopled by six thousand individuals, and containing a fine castle, an orphan hospital, a house of correction, and several cloth manufactories. At the distance of ten leagues in the same direction, and on the opposite bank of the river, may be observed a larger town, that of Heilbronn; formerly a free city, and a commandery of the Teutonic Order, it was enriched by the produce of its vineyards and distilleries, by its lead works, and the navigation of the Neckar. Hall, which lies ten leagues to the east of the last place, has been called *Suabian-Hall* (*Schwabisch-Hall*,) to distinguish it from others of the same name. Situated on the banks of the Kocher, surrounded with rocks, peopled by 6000 inhabitants, it owes its origin to the abundant saline springs in the vicinity. | Ludwigsburg.

Ellwangen on the Jaxt, the metropolis of a circle, and the seat of a theological university, cannot be compared in other respects with Gmünd, a town on the Rems, with a population of six thousand individuals, and well known for its different manufactures, particularly for the skill which its artisans have attained in working the precious metals. Gesslingen carries on a trade in different articles, made of ivory, bone, and wood; the quantity exported may be equal in value to 900,000 florins. Four thousand five hundred inhabitants make up the population of Geppingen, a town watered by the Fils. The mineral waters of Ueberkingen, situated in a romantic country, at no great distance from the last town, are visited every year by many strangers. | Ellwangen.

The neighbouring village of Hohenstaufen, stands on a height, that commands an extensive view. The old castle, now in ruins, still towers above the village; it was for a long time the residence of the emperor Barbarossa. The last descendant of the family of Hohenstaufen, was young Conrad, who, for having ascended the throne of Sicily, a country over which his father reigned, but which the Pope had made over to Charles of Anjou, perished on the scaffold at Naples in 1269.[4] | Hohenstaufen.

Beutlingen, formerly a free town, may be mentioned as the metropolis of the circle of Schwarzwald, and because it contains nine thousand inhabitants. It possesses a lyceum; its vineyards cover the sides of the Alp and the Georgenberg, and it carries on a trade in leather, lace and cutlery. | Beutlingen.

Tubingen, at the confluence of the Neckar and the Steinach, has been entitled the second capital of the kingdom. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals; it has a public library, containing sixty thousand volumes, and a university, attended by eight hundred students. The other institutions are a school of theology, a seminary for reformed clergymen, an observatory, and a veterinary school. The town cannot be commended for its appearance; the streets are crooked and narrow, the houses are gloomy and ill built. | Tubingen.

Ulm, peopled by eleven thousand inhabitants, has a better claim to the rank of second capital. It was formerly a free and imperial town, and its population was at one time more considerable, for it contained in 1808 fourteen thousand individuals. Its situation on the frontiers of Bavaria, at the confluence of the Blau and the Danube, the fortifications that defend it, its manufactures and transit trade, by which | Ulm.

[4] See Hohenstaufen ein Lesebuch, by J. H. Ammermuller.

its declining commerce is still supported, put it on a level with the principal towns in Wirtemberg. Its fortifications, it must be admitted, were not sufficient to prevent the French from making themselves masters of it, but it is equally certain that it might be rendered a much stronger place than it is at present. As it did not offer any resistance to the French armies, its buildings were not destroyed; the most remarkable are the townhouse, the public library, and the church of Munster, a building that cannot be too highly commended on account of its proportions and rich Gothic architecture. The trade of the town may have fallen off, but it possesses another claim to distinction. The pastry known by the name of Ulm bread, its asparagus, and the snails fattened in the vicinity, are duly appreciated by gourmands; could it be believed, that more than four millions of these animals are annually exported?

Biberach. | Biberach on the banks of the Riss, a town peopled by five thousand inhabitants, carries on a trade in paper and linen.

Antiquities. | The kingdom of Wirtemberg has been often visited by antiquaries. Several ancient monuments are situated in the southern part of the country. The ruins of an aqueduct about three leagues in length, may be observed in the neighbourhood of Rothenburg on the Neckar. The *Devil's Wall*, that rises on the banks of the Danube, at no great distance from Elwangen, forms the only part that now remains of a vast line of fortifications constructed by the Romans. The remains of Roman earthen works, from which a great many vases have been collected, may still be seen between Weiblingen and Endersbach, not many miles from Stuttgart. An altar and different basso relievos have been found in the same part of the country. The names of several places are connected with ancient recollections. *Beinstein* or *Beystein* means near the stone, and a monument was erected there by the Romans. Kalkofen, where Roman potteries were discovered a few years ago, has always borne the same name, which signifies a limekiln.

Crimes. | We abstain from making any reflections on the morality of the people in Wirtemberg; it may be remarked, however, that the number of criminal trials in the different courts, during the year 1823, was published in a German journal, and the prevalence of crime must necessarily be inferred from the result.* According to the same document, the number of persons tried for crimes during the same year, was not less than one thousand five hundred and sixty-six. It appears from the population at the time, that the individuals accused were to the rest of the inhabitants as one to a hundred and sixty-nine. To what can so frightful a state of society be attributed, unless to the remissness and imperfection of the laws?

Political commotions, changes in dynasties and government, a long residence of foreign armies, the corruption of morals, the ordinary consequence of wars and revolutions, the destruction of trade, and the difficulty of procuring the means of subsistence for the lower orders, tend to increase crimes in a country. It is then that wise legislators see the necessity of a new code adapted to the new wants of society. It is then that the laws must be simple, precise and distinct; it is then, above all, that the diffusion of education among the lower ranks, serves as a barrier against immorality. The government of Wirtemberg has experienced the advantages that may be derived from the instruction of the people; it will, without doubt, finish what it has so successfully begun.

Great dutchy of Baden. | The great dutchy of Baden forms a long and narrow tract that extends from the lake of Constance to the country beyond the mouth of the Neckar. Bounded by the course of the river on the south and the west, it is limited by Bavaria and the great dutchy of Hesse

* Allgemeine Handl. zect, Mars. 1825, p. 147.

on the north; by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the principalities of Hohenzollern, on the east; its irregular frontiers on the south-east are also contiguous to the same principalities. It may be unnecessary to mention the ancient people that inhabited the country; they were the Allemanni, of whom some account has been already given in the description of Wirtemberg.

Extent and surface.

The length of the great dutchy may be equal to a hundred and sixty-two miles, the breadth to thirty-eight in the northern districts, seventy-six in the southern, and to ten near the centre. Crome considers the surface little less than two hundred and seventy-four German square miles, which being reduced into English measures, makes the whole superficies not less than three thousand two hundred and eighty-eight square miles.

Mountains.

The greater part of the country, particularly from the centre to the extremity on the south, consists of mountains and fruitful valleys; but the latter are comparatively insignificant both in number and extent. The mountainous country forms the highest part of the Schwarzwald or Black Forest. The most elevated summit or the Feldberg reaches to the height of 4610 feet above the level of the sea; the lowest or the Winterbauch does not exceed 1640.[s] The Storenberg, the Rosskopf, the Poelle and the Todnauerberg have become celebrated in military history, on account of the fine retreat made by General Moreau in 1796. The Herberg and part of the Odenwald, two chains, in which the Kniebis is perhaps the most elevated point, extend to the northern extremity of the dutchy.

Formation.

The heights in the Black Forest, nearest the Rhine, are composed of granite, and those in the direction of Wirtemberg, are formed by sandstone and other rocks, belonging to what Werner and his disciples have termed the intermediate formation; of the same sort is the chain that extends northwards to the banks of the Neckar, and it appears too that trapp rocks and others of a volcanic origin, have been observed in these mountains. A belt of secondary limestone extends on the western declivities of the Schwarzwald; but the land beyond it on the banks of the Rhine, from Bale to Manheim, belongs to the third formation, to the one succeeding the formation of chalk, and cotemporaneous with that in the neighbourhood of Paris.

Marshes.

No lakes, except that of Constance or the Bodensee, are situated in the country; the same lake limits part of the great dutchy. The others are extensive marshes, which have been incorrectly denominated lakes; they are almost all situated in the mountainous territory, and at a considerable elevation; that of Schluch on the Feldberg, lies at the height of 2287 feet; the Echner and several others are upwards of 1467 feet above the level of the sea.

Climate.

The climate is mild and agreeable in the lower districts, or on the banks of the Rhine, the Maine and the Neckar; but the winters are very rigorous in the mountains, and particularly in the chain of the Schwarzwald; even in summer the air is always keen, and the snow seldom melts in the highest region.

[s] We may mention the heights of some other mountains in the dutchy, as they are marked in the tables of Hassel.

Rosskopf	3633 feet.
Blauen	3597
Stockberg	3358
Egarten	2898
Hohekopf	2560
Kaltenbronn	2400
Kaiserstuhl	2050
Katzenbuckel	1780

Forests, &c. The forests in the great dutchy of Baden occupy a surface of one million five hundred and eighty thousand acres; one million three hundred thousand are cultivated; two hundred and nine thousand are waste; three hundred and thirty-five thousand are in pasture, seventy-four thousand are planted with vines, and a hundred and fifty thousand belong to the different towns, burghs and villages. The heights are covered with thick forests of oaks and pines, but the low grounds and the valleys produce varied and abundant harvests. Crops of poor oats and potatoes can hardly be raised on the high country, and the cherry does not ripen before September; but the spectacle is very different on the plains; the vine, the almond, chesnut and other fruit trees, different kinds of grain, hemp, lint, and the plants most useful to man, grow luxuriantly, and diffuse wealth and plenty over the land.

Natural products. Different products are obtained, their number and importance depend on the nature of the country. Many animals haunt the forests, game abounds in the fields, and a considerable revenue is derived from the fishings on the Rhine and the lake of Constance. Salmon are not uncommon, and the carp of the Rhine, some of which weigh more than forty pounds, are considered a great delicacy by the wealthy. But though not so well known as those that have been last mentioned, the ablet (*cyprinus alburnus*, Lin.) is perhaps a more valuable fish. The shell of the ablet has given rise to a branch of commerce; it is exported into Saxony, France and Swisserland, and used in giving a lustre to imitation pearls, by which it is difficult to distinguish them from real.

Mines. The mineral riches of the country, though not great, consist at least of different kinds; more than 12,000 hundred weight of iron is annually extracted, about 700 of lead, and nearly 500 marks of silver. The other products are copper, zinc, arsenic, alum, coal, and 4000 hundred weight of salt. Coarse and fine potter's clay, slates, marble and alabaster are found in several places; even gold might be mentioned among the metals, for particles of gold are collected on the alluvial deposites that are watered by the Rhine. A hundred and twenty individuals are employed in seeking it, but the quantity collected every year does not exceed on an average 700*l.*

Agricultural produce. Industry. That part of the Black Forest, situated within the great dutchy, may rival Wirtemberg for its *Kirchen-wasser*. Several vineyards are noted both for the quantity and quality of the wine produced on them; the best perhaps are those of Constance, on the banks of the lake, and next to them, the vineyards of Margraff and Bergstrase.

The domestic animals, with the exception of the horse, are of a good kind. Many inhabitants are employed in weaving or manufacturing hemp and lint. The raw and spun lint exported every year from the territory of Ettenheim, amounts in value to 30,000 florins; and the hardware trade in the district of Pforzheim, occasions a circulation of 1,700,000. Many wooden clocks and other articles, which it is unnecessary to enumerate, are sold in the Schwarzwald. It may suffice to state that notwithstanding the stagnation of commerce, there were a few years ago in the great dutchy of Baden, nearly 75,000 workmen employed in different branches of labour.

Commerce. The transit trade is very important, it consists chiefly in naval timber and other kinds of wood, that are exported to Swisserland, France and the Netherlands. The other exports are wines, corn, dried fruits, kirchen-wasser, tobacco, mineral water, and hardware goods; the country receives in exchange French wines, salt, different manufactures, colonial produce, and a number of horses.

Princes. Some genealogists have maintained that the family of Baden was sprung from Gothic kings; others affirm it to have been

founded in 684 by Etichon, a duke of Alsace. But it is certain that the signiory of Baden was raised into a margraviate by Henry the Fowler, about the commencement of the tenth century. Hermann, the son of Bertholet, and the first prince whom the chroniclers mention, flourished during the eleventh century; he derived from Judith, his first wife, the heiress of Baden, the principality from which his successors took the title of margraves. But the marquisate was governed by several families that became successively extinct.[h] The country was made an electorate in 1802, and some years afterwards, it was erected into a great dutchy.

Population.

It has been already observed that the population in Germany is annually increasing; the same remark may be still more applicable to the great dutchy of Baden, than to many other states in the same country. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Stein in 1813, at 1,001,630, and by Hassel in 1822, at 1,040,700. But the increase has been still greater since that period. According to M. Adrian Balbi, the population, in 1826, was not less than 1,130,000.[i] Stein remarks in his geography that the women were much more numerous than the men in 1813; indeed it appears from his calculation that the excess was equal to 31,343.[k] The same writer attributes the disproportion to the ravages of war, and to the fact, that many young men migrated to foreign countries in order to avoid the conscription. But it is not likely that these were the only causes, because M. Hassel has shown that there were 27,400 more women than men in the country during the third year after the peace, and because nearly the same population subsisted at a still later period in the year 1826. The blessings of peace, which Europe has so long enjoyed, are not then the sole causes of the increasing population; it must be partly attributed to the diffusion of wealth, and to such discoveries as vaccination; for during twenty years, the augmentation has not been sensibly diminished by all the evils of war. As to the difference in the number of the two sexes, it must be in a great degree occasioned by the frequent migrations that take place among the working classes, an important element, which does not appear to have entered into the calculations of statistical writers. It is difficult to believe that the men averse to the military life, are so numerous as Stein supposes, or that the habits of the people in Baden are so peaceful; they cannot be reproached for want of valour; besides, fear prevents very few in any country from entering the army.

Religion.

The reigning family of Baden adheres to the Augsburg confession; but nearly two-thirds of the population are Catholics; the other inhabitants are mostly Lutherans and Calvinists, the latter, however, do not make up a fourth part of the former; there are, besides, some Mennonites and Jews, who enjoy all the rights of citizens.[l] Several convents still remain in the great dutchy, but the purpose for which they were erected, has been altered, they now serve for places of education. By a law passed in 1811, no person can take the vows before the age of twenty-one; the period, during which the vows last, is limited to three years; at the end of that time, the nuns may return to the world, and participate in its enjoyments. Silence, austerity, and almost all the obligations mentioned in the rules of different monastic orders, have been abolished.

[h] Dictionary of Moreri, article Baden. [i] See Tableau de la balance politique du globe. [k] Handbuch der Geographie und statistic.

[l] The proportion between the increase in the population and the different sects, being nearly the same, the following table, which Hassel considered correct in 1822, may stil serve to show the numerical importance of the different sects.

Catholics,	705,850
Lutherans,	248,900
Calvinists,	69,100
Jews,	15,400
Mennonites and other sects,	1,450

Government. | The government of the great dutchy was purely monarchical; but the sovereign passed a decree on the 16th of March, 1816; having announced his desire of securing the happiness, tranquillity, and liberty of his subjects, he declared that these intentions could only be accomplished by granting them a constitution, in which the rights of the prince and the people might be more accurately determined. According to the same decree, which forms the basis of the constitution, the duke possesses the right of making peace or war, enacting laws, and levying contributions, dispensing mercy to criminals, conferring titles of nobility, and lastly, of approving or opposing the establishment of religious societies. The two chambers, or states, must be convoked at least once every two years; they fix the amount of the taxes and contributions, submit new laws to the consideration of the prince, or propose whatever may contribute to the prosperity of the state.

Conscription. | The conscription has not been abolished; but the Napoleon Code, which was introduced into the country, has been succeeded by the Roman law, and the ancient customs that were established in the dutchy before the French conquest. A new system of weights and measures, according to the decimal divisions, may be considered the only benefit that the country has derived from its connexion with France.

Ranks. | The inhabitants are divided into four classes; the nobles, knights, burgesses, and peasants. The nobles possess baronies and estates, to which different privileges are attached. The knights are the members of the four orders of knighthood instituted by the prince. The burgesses hold property or civil offices in the different towns; none can enjoy the rights of citizens, who cannot read, write, and manage their own affairs.

Education. | Government has promoted education by different institutions, of which the inhabitants are daily reaping the advantages. It maintains two universities, those of Heidelberg and Freyburg; it has founded four lyceums, one at Constance, another at Baden, a third at Carlsruhe, and a fourth at Manheim; it has contributed to the establishment of other schools, as the institution for the deaf and dumb, the academy of architecture, and the two commercial seminaries at Manheim and Carlsruhe. There are, besides, in the principal towns, ten lyceums, fifteen schools, in seven of which Latin and Greek are taught, and also a school of theology for the Protestants at Merseburg, and another for the Catholics at Carlsruhe. But in the year 1815, government found it adviseable to impose some restrictions on the power that a parent has of educating his children; according to an enactment made in that year, the sons of burgesses, merchants, and peasants, who have no reasonable expectations of receiving a patrimony, equal at least to 8000 florins, are not permitted to study the law, or to choose the profession of the bar, unless, indeed, they distinguish themselves in such a way as to afford indications of future talent or eminent success. The measures of government were rendered necessary by the difficulty experienced in finding employment for the lawyers and attorneys in the country, as their number was three times greater than that required for conducting all the business of the different courts.

Crimes. | If the number of criminals in the great dutchy be compared with those in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, a very great difference will be found in that respect, at least, between the two contiguous countries. According to the reports which we have perused, the number of persons who are prosecuted annually for crimes, varies from six to seven hundred; so that the proportion between those accused of crimes and the other inhabitants, is as one to sixteen hundred.

Finances. | It appears from the report made to the chambers in 1825, concerning the administration from the year 1821 to 1823, that the mean term of the revenue may be estimated at 9,586,000 florins; ac-

cording to the reports relative to the expenditure, it may amount to 9,497,000.[m] The national debt was equal in 1820 to 19,000,000 florins, and the expenses of the civil list to 2,000,000.

The great dutchy of Baden is obliged to furnish a contingent of ten thousand men to the Germanic confederation. The army consists of an effective force equal to eleven thousand men, and a reserve amounting to seven thousand. The Jews in the country, having been long averse to the military service, the individuals amongst them, on whom the conscription falls, are each permitted to deposite 400 florins at the office of the war department, and these sums are given to substitutes, who are always very willing to enter the army on such conditions. | Army.

There are seven principalities and two counties in the great dutchy, and the noble proprietors of these states enjoy many important privileges. The country has been divided into six circles, bearing the names of the different rivers and the lake of Constance,[n] and containing a hundred and eight towns, thirty-six burghs, two thousand four hundred and twenty-seven villages and hamlets, a hundred and fifty-four thousand seven hundred and ten houses, which, according to the lowest calculations, were valued in the different insurance offices some years ago, at three hundred and fifty millions of florins. | Political divisions.

The inhabitants of Baden speak a harsh and guttural dialect, that appears to be composed of German and Slavonic; but it is different in different districts, particularly at the two extremities of the country; thus, it is easy to distinguish by their pronunciation natives of the Schwarzwald from those of the Odenwald. | Language.

Wertheim, a town situated at the confluence of the Maine and the Tauber, is a mediate possession of prince Loewenstein under the sovereignty of the great duke. It is encompassed with walls, and defended by two castles; it contains 3500 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in leather, spirits and wines; the conveyance of goods on the Maine forms an important part of their commerce. | Towns.

Manheim, the largest town in the great dutchy, has thrice, within a century and a half, experienced the fatal effects of war. Devastated by the Bavarians in 1662, the town was hardly repaired, before it was included in the destruction of the Palatinate, a decree that disgraces for ever the administration of Louvois. The fury of the French soldiers could not be restrained, almost all the houses were demolished, and the generals of Lewis the Fourteenth saw their men plunder the tombs of the palatines. Rebuilt by its princes, it was bombarded in 1795 by the republican armies of France, and a great many of its buildings were reduced to ashes. But its advantageous situation at the confluence of the Neckar and the Rhine, the importance of its commerce and manu- | Manheim.

[m] Revenue.

1821	9,651,827 florins.
1822	9,597,938
1823	9,508,955

Expenditure.

1821	9,849,287 florins.
1822	9,323,624
1823	9,320,444

See the German work entitled Hertha, 1825.

[n] The following are the names of the circles.

		Chief Towns.
1°.	Circle of the Maine and Tauber,	Wertheim.
2°.	——— Neckar,	Manheim.
3°.	——— Murg and Pfins,	Dourlach.
4°.	——— Kingzig,	Offenburg.
5°.	——— Treisam,	Freyburg.
6°.	——— Sea or Lake,	Constance.

factures, which consist in linen and woollen stuffs, and jewellery made chiefly of the alloy that is known by the name of *Manheim gold*, have contributed to restore it to its ancient prosperity.

Population. | The population amounts, according to Hassel, to 21,525 persons. The streets are broad and straight; there are four squares, two fountains, a ducal castle, and a large building, which contains the mint and seven churches; the finest part of the same edifice was the ancient residence of the Jesuits, and it still attests their former wealth and power. The observatory, enriched with every useful instrument for astronomical purposes, might be considered an ornament to any town. It possesses, besides, a theatre of anatomy, a school of midwifery, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, a library, a gallery of paintings, and a collection of antiquities. It is unnecessary to mention its lyceum, but it may be observed that a meteorological society has been instituted, and some of the members have distinguished themselves by their researches in a department of knowledge which is still in its infancy.*

Heidelberg. | Heidelberg is situated to the south-east of Manheim, at ten leagues above it, on the banks of the Neckar. The town was founded in the twelfth century; it contains at present about 10,500 inhabitants. The houses are generally well built, and some of the squares have been much admired. More than seven hundred students attend its university, which ranks with the most ancient in Germany; indeed one cannot observe without interest the different establishments for the instruction of youth, the botanical gardens, the numerous museums, the collections of philosophical instruments, and the valuable libraries. The most celebrated scholars in Europe met at Heidelberg during the sixteenth century. It was the residence of Olimpia Fulvia Morata, who was not less distinguished by her virtuous and exemplary life, than by the extent of her learning, and the superiority of her genius. Compelled to take refuge in Germany, on account of her attachment to protestantism, she filled the chair of ancient languages in the university of Heidelberg, and was considered a prodigy of learning, although not more than twenty-nine years of age at the time of her death.† Francis Junius was one of the celebrated men that have been born in the town; he wrote several valuable works on the ancient languages and antiquities of the north.

Castle. Tun. | A castle has been built on the hill that commands Heidelberg; there too may be observed the famous tun, which was substituted for the one broken by the French during the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth. It contains 130,000 gallons, and the weight of the iron that encircles it, is upwards of 12,000 hundred weight. The first hot houses in Europe were built near the same castle; from its walls may be seen the finest country in the ancient palatinate, the fruitful vineyards of Heidelberg and Weinheim, a small town of 4500 inhabitants, situated near the frontiers of ducal Hesse.

Other towns. | The ramparts of Philipsburgh were destroyed by Lewis of Bourbon, and the place was taken forty years afterwards by Lewis, dauphin of France. The castle, formerly inhabited by the sovereign bishop of Spire, is situated in the small town of Bruchsal, which contains a population of nearly six thousand individuals. Dourlach, situated in a fruitful plain on the Plinz, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants.

Carlsruhe. | Carlsruhe or Karlsruhe, the capital of the great dutchy and the chief town of a circle, is situated at the height of three hundred and seventy feet above the sea. It is built with much regularity, the streets are straight, all of them terminate in front of the ducal castle, and diverge from each other in the form of a fan. That singular arrange-

* See Die sternwarte zu Manuhein beschrieben vom staatsrath Kuher. † Musee des Protestans celebres, tom. II. Notice de Renée de France.

ment has a very fine effect when the town is illumined. The gardens and woods that extend opposite the castle, form agreeable public walks, and the residence of the prince must be admired by every one for its elegant yet simple architecture. There are different collections in the town, but the most valuable are the ducal library and museum of the prince. The buildings are finer than in most places of the same size; the Reformed and Catholic churches are considered the best works of the celebrated architect Weinbrenner. The theatre is a light and elegant building, and if our limits would permit, it might be worth while to describe some of the private houses on account of their architecture. The population of Carlsruhe amounts to sixteen thousand individuals; as it is the residence of the court, it cannot be supposed a place of trade, still however it has been long known for its different articles of luxury, such as jewellery, watches, household furniture and carriages.

Fabulous origin of Phorzheim.

Reuchlin, one of the most remarkable men that flourished in the sixteenth century, both for his erudition and bold opinions concerning the reformation of Christianity, attempted to prove that Phorzheim, his native town, was founded by Phorcys, the Trojan auxiliary of Priam. Other learned men that lived during the same period, believed that the town was formerly called Orcynheim, from the name of the vast forest mentioned by Julius Cæsar, and which ancient writers designated the *Sylva Hercynia* or *Orcynia*. It has been affirmed, on the authority of these fanciful etymologies, that the town which the Romans called *Porta Hercyniæ*, was no other place than Pforzheim. Its antiquity may be considered doubtful, indeed it is very probable that it was not known to the ancients. Pforzheim is situated on the base of the Schwarzwald, at the confluence of the Enz, the Nagold and the Wurm; its population, according to Hassel, exceeds six thousand five hundred individuals. It contains a house of correction and an orphan hospital; it carries on an important trade in naval timber.

Roman town.

The ruins of a Roman town were discovered between Dourlach and Etlingen in the year 1802; but antiquaries have not yet agreed as to the name of the place.

Rastadt.

Rastadt, on the banks of the Murg, owes its celebrity to the congresses that have been held within its walls, and to the massacre of the deputies of the French republic. It contains about two thousand four hundred souls. A ducal castle, the principal edifice, may be remarked, not only for its romantic site, but for the Turkish trophies and other collections, which have been placed in it. The trade, which it has long enjoyed, may be considered great in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; its cutlery and snuff-boxes are exported to different parts of Germany.

Baden.

Baden or Baaden, a place about six miles from Rastadt, has derived its name from its mineral springs and from baths, which were well known and frequented in the time of the Romans. The antiquities that have been found in the vicinity, form a valuable collection. The town is peopled by more than three thousand inhabitants. None of the buildings can vie with the ancient college of the Jesuits.

Marshal Turenne.

A road from Baden to Offenburg passes through the village of Sassbach, where the traveller cannot see without emotion an old and decayed walnut tree, for it was there that Turenne expired on the twenty-seventh of July, 1675. The virtues and military glory of that great man are appreciated by all, they are admired in other countries as much as in France. A detachment of veterans is stationed in the village; to observe their sergeant describe the engagement, and show the cannon ball that put a period to the hero's career, one might imagine that Turenne had died in the last campaigns of Germany.

Offenburg. Other towns. The small town of Offenburg contains about 3000 inhabitants, and the lands belonging to it are fruitful in vineyards. The population of Lahr or Lohr has much increased of late; it may amount at present to nearly five thousand inhabitants. The cause of its prosperity must be ascribed to its trade, which is becoming greater every year. Friburg or Freiburg stands on the banks of the Treisam, at the base of the mountains in the Black Forest. Peopled by ten thousand five hundred inhabitants, possessing a gymnasium, a university, that is still well attended, and different scientific collections, it has been considered one of the most important towns of the dutchy. The houses are well built, the cathedral has been remarked for its architecture and lofty tower, that rises to the height of five hundred feet.

Brisach, or Old Brisach, or, as the Germans call it, *Alt-Briesach*, is supposed to have been founded by Drusus; if that opinion be correct, it was probably the ancient capital of the *Brisagavi*, a German tribe, subject to the Alemani. The fortifications of Brisach were destroyed by Mary Theresa. It contains about two thousand five hundred inhabitants; although watered by the Rhine, it is not a place of much trade.

Southern district. It may be readily inferred from the nature of the country, and the mountains in the Black Forest, that few towns of any consequence are situated in the southern part of the dutchy. The only two that can be mentioned, are Willengen and Constance. But before we leave the chain of the Schwarzwald, it may be stated that the thermal springs, near the small village of Badenweiler, have been known for more than two thousand years. It was founded by the Romans; the remains of their works are still apparent, some of them occupy an extent of two hundred and twenty feet in length, and nearly eighty in breadth.

Willengen. Constance. Willengen is situated near the confines of Wirtemberg, in a lofty valley on the banks of the Brig; it contains a population of three thousand three hundred individuals. Another town, Constance or Konstanz, has been built in the same circle, more important perhaps than the last place from the number of its inhabitants, and better known from the council that was held within its walls in the year 1451. Constance gives its name to the lake on which it stands. The two most zealous precursors of the reformation, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, were condemned to death by a decree of the council. Indignant at the corruption of the clergy, they chose rather to be burnt alive than to recant their opinions on the necessity of abolishing abuses.

The following remarkable passage for the time, may be found in the treatise on the church, a work written by Huss in the year 1413. "The church may be defined a mystical body, of which the head is Jesus Christ, and the members, the just and the predestined. The latter cannot be separated from the church by an unjust excommunication; *their spirit beareth witness to his spirit that they are the children of God.* . . . . . The sovereign pontiff, the cardinals, the bishops belong to the body of the church, but the sovereign pontiff is not the chief. The church would exist, although there were neither pope, cardinals nor bishops. Popes, cardinals, bishops, and priests cease to be members of the church by the commission of sin. Whatsoever ye bind in earth, says our Saviour to his apostles, shall be bound in heaven, whatsoever ye loose in earth shall be loosed in heaven. If the popes, as the successors of the apostles, claim the same power, it can only be exercised through Jesus Christ, for as it requires an infinite power to justify a sinner, it must be the attribute of the divinity. No sins can be remitted, without repentance on the part of the sinner; absolution of itself therefore cannot be sufficient. The faithful, without doubt, owe a reasonable obedience to their bishops; but Christians have a surer guide for their conduct than the word of man, they have the word of God, contained in the Old and New Testaments."

A turret, in the ancient convent of the Franciscans, served as a prison for Huss, who was burnt in the suburbs of Constance. Jerome of Prague shared the same fate, as undaunted as his friend; it is said, when the executioner endeavoured to kindle the funeral pile behind him, the martyr desired him to set fire to it in front, adding, that had he been afraid of death, he might have escaped from his judges. | Martyrdom of Huss.

Constance, formerly a free and imperial town, is ill peopled in proportion to its size; it contains only four thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets and houses are well built, the finest edifices are the ducal castle and episcopal palace. Its academy, gymnasium, and lyceum are richly endowed. The trade of Constance was formerly more considerable than at present; it consists of wine and grain, linen and wood. | Constance.

Government may be commended for the enlightened views, to which the prosperity of the state must in a great measure be attributed. Judicious retrenchments have been proposed and enforced. The public funds are not wasted in encouraging a spirit of speculation, as fatal to national welfare, as gambling is to individual happiness. But although such projects are always opposed, the administration is not averse to any plan by which the wants of the people may be diminished. An inhabitant of Carlsruhe, animated by that philanthropic zeal which can excite men to good and generous actions, persuaded his townsmen in 1824 to raise a fund for the foundation of a workhouse, where every artisan without employment might find occupation, and every unfortunate person, skilled in any branch of industry, might obtain the means of subsistence.[q] The government promoted the accomplishment of the plan, and unless it had done so, the efforts of the inhabitants might have been unavailing. The public authorities have also approved and adopted the measures taken by a number of wealthy merchants and clergymen to assist and find employment for the poor throughout the country. | Administration.

Other interests of a more general nature have not escaped the attention of government. It appears from a treaty made in 1824, that the utmost freedom of trade was established between the great dutchies of Baden and Hesse, and at a later period between all the states in the confederation.[r] The object of the treaty was to extend the commercial intercourse of the two principalities with foreign countries, and to facilitate the circulation of commodities by taking away the restraints which shortsighted statesmen had judged necessary for the prosperity of nations. Although the effect of these changes has been to unite the interests of the two dutchies, similar changes have not been introduced into other countries—still it is no uninteresting spectacle to see secondary powers set the world an example of that harmony which renders unnecessary expensive establishments on the frontiers and coasts of different countries, establishments that tend only to encourage fraud, and prevent the inhabitants of civilized nations from enjoying the mutual advantages of their industry. | Freedom of trade.

The principalities that remain to be mentioned are not of much importance, they may be shortly described. According to some genealogists, the family of Hohenzollern has existed for more than a thousand years. But so many families in Germany claim a like antiquity, that their ancient origin excites neither interest nor surprise. The filiation of the family may be traced from Frederick count of Hohenzollern, who flourished in the thirteenth century. The same house was afterwards divided into two branches, and their possessions were erect- | Principalities of Hohenzollern.

[q] M. Sommelatt was the founder of this excellent institution. See his memoir, entitled Einladung an alle Menschen freunde und patrioten Badens.

[r] Extra Bellage zu, No. 258 derl Carlsruher-Zeitung.

ed into principalities during the eighteenth century at the diet of Ratisbon. The two families are distinguished by the names of the towns in which they reside—Heckingen and Sigmaringen. Their territories are surrounded by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the great dutchy of Baden.

Hohenzollern Heckingen. The principality of Hohenzollern-Heckingen may be about sixty-four square miles in superficial extent; the population amounts to fifteen thousand inhabitants, almost all of them are Catholics. The country abounds with sandstone and calcareous rocks, containing organic remains. The hills form a part of a chain that extends from the Black Forest to the eastern extremity of Wirtemberg. The Zollenberg or highest hill is not more than 2600 feet above the level of the sea. The most of the heights are covered with trees. The revenues of the state are equal to 120,000 florins, and the contingent for the confederation to a hundred and forty-five men.

Heckingen. Heckingen, the capital, is situated at the foot of a hill watered by the Startzel; it may contain about 2600 inhabitants. The old castle of Hohenzollern rises on the heights above the town. It was built in the fifteenth century on the site of the one which was destroyed by Henrietta, countess of Wirtemberg and Montbelliart. The building was founded with much pomp and solemnity; Nicolas, count of Hohenzollern, Philip, duke of Burgundy, Albert, elector of Brandenburg, Charles, margrave of Baden, and Albert, duke of Austria, carried silver trowels or silver hammers, and laid the foundation stone in 1460. A valuable collection of armour may still be seen in one of the halls.

Hohenzollern and Sigmaringen. Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen lies to the south of the last principality; its surface and population are greater; Crome makes out the former to be equal to three hundred and twelve English square miles, and Hassel supposes the latter equal to thirty-eight thousand inhabitants. The soil belongs to what German geologists have termed the second and third formations. The country for the most part is sterile, but some of the plains yield rich harvests. The revenues amount to 300,000 florins, and the prince furnishes a contingent of 370 men to the confederation.

Sigmaringen. Although Sigmaringen on the Danube is the royal residence, it contains only eight hundred inhabitants. Haigerloch, the only city in the principality, for all the other places are burghs, stands at the foot of a hill; it is surrounded with rocks, and watered by the Eyach. The population may be equal to 2000 individuals.

Liechtenstein. Liechtenstein, one of the smallest principalities in Germany, does not contain more than five thousand eight hundred persons, who inhabit a surface of thirty-six square miles. The revenue does not exceed 3000 florins, and the state furnishes a contingent of fifty-five men. It is situated on the banks of the Rhine, at the distance of nearly fifteen miles from the lake of Constance. The house of Liechtenstein is descended from Azo IV. duke of Este, who died in the year 1037. It possessed seventy-three seigniories during the succeeding centuries;[s] and it still possesses under the sovereignty of Austria and Prussia two considerable principalities, those of Troppau and Jœgerndorf, together with other lands, of which the total population cannot be less than 324,000 inhabitants. The revenues, according to Stein, are upwards of 1,500,000 florins.[t] The prince may thus be enabled to maintain the rank of his ancient family.

Vadutz, a burgh on the banks of the Rhine, contains seven hundred souls. The castle of Liechtenstein, where the prince resides, rises at no great distance from it.

[s] Mich. Reinhard. Brevarium hist. Licht. [t] Sein's Geography.

BOOK CXXIII.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Seventh Section.—Kingdom of Bavaria.

The ancient dutchy of Bavaria, perhaps the largest of the German principalities, was the one that maintained the most numerous army. Having since been raised into a kingdom, it obtained by the last treaties additional territory, but the inhabitants have derived more important advantages from an enlightened and economical government. It is bounded by the kingdom of Saxony, ducal Saxony, and electoral Hesse, on the north; by the great dutchies of Hesse and Baden, and also by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, on the west; by the states of the Austrian empire on the south and east. The superficial extent of the former dutchy was supposed equal to 1359 German geographical miles, or not less than 22,663 English square miles, but if the recent additions on the left bank of the Rhine be included, it may amount to 1499 German, or 25,002 English square miles. Adhering to the same plan that was followed in the account of Prussia, the whole territory between Austria and Wirtemberg, may be considered as forming the kingdom of Bavaria proper; it may be as well to make some remarks on its physical geography, to enter into the statistical details connected with it, and afterwards to examine separately the Bavarian province on the banks of the Rhine.

Bavaria. Bavaria proper comprehends almost the whole country enclosed by the Rauhe-Alp, and the Spessart on the west, by the Rhœne-Gebirge, the Thuringer-Wald, and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the north, by the Bœhmer-Wald on the east, and by different heights connected with the Alps on the west. That extensive region is naturally divided into two parts; the Regnitz waters the first or the northern, which forms the basin of the Maine. It consists of two branches that extend from the place where the Regnitz leaves its source; the one or the Frank-Hœhe bends to the right, and unites with the Fichtel-Gebirge; the other or the Steiger-Wald reaches nearly to the chain of the Spessart, from which it is only separated by the course of the Maine. The principal inclination of the basin is from south to north, and the Regnitz follows the same direction, before it unites with the Maine. The southern basin or the larger of the two is traversed by the Danube, and formed by ramifications of the Frank-Hœhe, Steiger-Wald, and other mountains that have been already mentioned. The heights that rise on the north of the river are much lower than those on the south, and the streams it receives on the left, are by no means so large as the feeders that enter by the right or opposite bank. The three largest rivers on the left side are the Atmühl, which descends from the Steiger-Wald, the Nab, that flows from the Fichtel-Gebirge, and the Regen, that has its source in the Bœhmer-Wald. The rivers, like the mountains on the right bank, are more important; the largest are the Iller, the Lech, the Isar, and the Inn; they rise from the Alps. The principal declivities in the basin incline to the north-east; the different mountains enclose wide vallies or low and humid plains. The most extensive of these plains, or the one between Ratisbon and Osterhofen, may be about forty-five miles in length, and nearly as many in breadth.

Thus, the basin of the Danube marks distinctly the separation of two great mountainous ranges, that of the Alps on the south of the river, and the Hercynio-Carpathians on the north, a separation which we have had

already occasion to observe in the chapter on the physical geography of Europe. It is unnecessary to mention a second time the height of the Alpine summits, which, like the Wartzmann and the Hochvogel, rise above the mountains in the south of Bavaria;[a] but it may be remarked that the Bœhmer-Wald and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the eastern limits, vary in height from three thousand to upwards of five thousand feet.[b]

Mountains. | The general arrangement of these mountains has been described in a former chapter; but it may be requisite to give a more minute account of the Spessart, Rhœne-Gebirge, and Bœhmer-Wald, in order to complete the physical geography of Bavaria.

Spessart. | The chain of the Spessart commences on the banks of the Maine, at the place where the course of the river separates it from the chain of the Oden-Wald. The extremity on the side of the Maine bears the name of Engelsberg; it inclines to the north, but some of its branches extend to the south-west or south-east, and join the Rhœne-Gebirge; different streams, most of which are tributary to the Maine, descend from these heights. The mean elevation of the chain may be about thirteen hundred and thirty-six feet; some of the mountains, however, are considerably higher; the Hohe-Wart rises to the height of two thousand feet, and the Geyersberg, or the loftiest in the range, to two thousand and eighty.

Rocks. | Volcanic rocks are observed in the Spessart, but the most frequent are granite, gneiss, syenite, and porphyry, which serve as a support for sandstone, argil, and calcareous rocks. Veins of copper, cobalt and iron are found in the primitive, but oftener in the secondary rocks. As to the form of the hills, most of them are rounded, and gentle declivities extend to a considerable distance; it is only in the neighbourhood of Aschaffenburg, that the stranger observes steep heights and pyramidical summits.[c]

Rhœne-Gebirge. | The Rhœne-Gebirge are more extensive than the Spessart; they unite on the west with the chain of the Vogelsberg, and on the east with the Thuringer-Wald. Their mean elevation exceeds that of the Spessart, and they furnish two feeders to the Maine,—the Sinn and the Saale. Granite rocks rise at the western extremity, secondary calcareous rocks rest above them on the declivities, and basaltic deposits are observed in different directions.

Fichtel-Gebirge. | The Fichtel-Gebirge, which connect the Rhœne mountains with the Bœhmer-Wald, consist chiefly of granite; the highest point in the range is the summit of the Ochsenkopf.

Two small rivers descend from the Fichtel-Gebirge, and form the Maine; the inhabitants call one of these streams the White Maine; the other, or the Red Maine, flows to it from the south. The bed of the former at Culmbach has been found to be a hundred and thirty-six feet higher than the bed of the latter at Bayreuth. The declivity in the basin of the Maine from east to west, or from Bayreuth to Wurtzburg, a distance of nearly sixty miles, is upwards of six hundred feet.[d]

Bœhmer-Wald. | The chain of the Bœhmer-Wald joins the Fichtel-Gebirge; it commences at the sources of the Eger, and terminates at the Moravian mountains, which shall afterwards be more fully mentioned.

[a] See the table of the heights of the different European mountains.

[b] As several mountains have not been mentioned in the general table, the heights of the loftiest summits may be now stated. We adhere to the measurements of Hassel.

Hohe-Staufen near Reichen-Hall, ...	5,408 feet.
Grunten near Sonthofen, ...	4,160
Ochsen-Kopf, or Ox's Head, (Fichtel-Gebirge,) .	3,394
Kœssein, . . (Idem) . . .	3,060

[c] See the topographical essay on the Spessart by M. Behlem; a German work.

[d] See the astronomical and geographical correspondence of the Baron de Zach. Volume XIII.

The Bœhmer-Wald may be about two hundred miles in length; its breadth on the north-west may vary from fifteen to twenty near the centre, and from twenty-four to more than thirty on the south. It rises gradually from the northern extremity to the neighbourhood of Waldmunchen; the highest point is situated near Swiesel, and the chain becomes gradually lower, until it unites with the Moravian mountains. The most elevated summits are the Arber, the Rachel, and the Dreysel.* The range is very steep on the side of Bavaria, but much less so towards Bohemia. Several branches connected with the same heights, extend into the former country, the most important are the Greiner-Wald and the Bayer-Wald; the first rises near Waldmunchen; the Regen, a feeder of the Danube, descends from its southern declivities; the other or the Bayer-Wald reaches from Mount Rachel to Ratisbon, and separates the course of the Danube from the Regen. Length.

The last is not the only river that has its source in the Bœhmer-Wald, and follows the declivities in the basin of the Danube. The Ilz rises from the base of Mount Rachel, and several streams which form the Nab, flow from the same range and the Fichtel-Gebirge. The lower parts of the Bœhmer-Wald are composed of granite, which supports masses of gneiss and micaceous schistus. One may observe on these heights deep cavities and numerous marshes; the summits resemble needles or pyramids, and the forests on the southern sides afford shelter to the lynx and the bear. Other rivers.

Two distinct geological formations are separated in Bavaria by the course of the Danube. The land on the north of the river, including the country between the basin of the Regnitz and the Maine, belongs to the ancient formation; it contains muschel-kalk, zechstein, other rocks of the same sort, as well as quader-sandstein and quartz. The vast deposits that extend to the south, from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the Danube, belong to the third formation; they rest on more ancient rocks, which are supported on the granite that extends from the chain of the Alps. Lands on the south and north of the Danube.

The alluvial lands on the north of the river are of an earlier formation than those in southern Bavaria; geologists have discovered in them the bones of the animals that inhabited our planet at a time when its climate and productions rendered it unfit for the residence of man. The fossil bones of the tapir and rhinoceros have been found in the valley of the Regen; crocodiles in the calcareous schistus in the valley of the Altmühl; the remains of elephants, which must have been much larger than any that exist at present, have been collected near Schweinfurth and Arnstein, in the valley of the Maine. Some caverns in the Steiger-Wald are filled with the bones of lions and hyenas. The remains of animals now wholly extinct may be observed in other places; in short, it is difficult to mention a more interesting country than Bavaria to those who are engaged in the most attractive department of natural history. Fossil bones.

The highest and most southern portion of Bavaria is exposed to the influence of the Alps. The lakes are numerous, and some of them are large; thus, besides the lake of Constance, a very small part of which is situated in the kingdom, eight others of considerable extent might be mentioned. The greatest are the Ammer, the Wurm, and the Chiem; a river of the same name issues from the first, and throws itself into the Isar. The Alz, a feeder of the Inn, flows from the Chiem. The others that may be enumerated, are the Staffel, the Kochel, the Walchen, the Tegern, and the Bartholomeus or royal lake. These lakes and many more of a smaller size, are not without their value to the inhabitants; Lakes.

* The last mountain may be about two thousand eight hundred and eighty-four feet above the level of the sea.

several fisheries have been established on them, and a lucrative branch of industry has thus been produced.[f]

Mineral springs. The most frequented mineral springs in Bavaria are those at Siechersreuth, in the picturesque country of the Fichtel-Gebirge, the baths of Kissingen situated in a valley watered by the Saale, about thirty-two miles distant from Wurtzburg; the others in the same part of the country are the acidulated and ferruginous sources of Bocklet and Bruckenau. Munich is supplied with mineral water from Hardecker in the southern part of the kingdom.

Climate. The climate on the whole is temperate and salubrious; the elevation of the soil, and the neighbourhood of the mountains, occasion, however, considerable modifications in the temperature. The winds are cold in the countries to the south of the Danube, the winters too are long and severe; but that region is the highest of any in Bavaria, and the most exposed to the influence of the eternal glaciers on the Alps. The prevalence of the north-east winds renders the climate cold and dry throughout the Bœhmer-Wald. Much rain falls in many places during the spring, and the heat of summer is sometimes excessive in the vallies.

Ancient inhabitants. Before we make any remarks on the natural productions, agricultural wealth and commerce of Bavaria, it may be as well to give some account of the ancient people who occupied the country. It was formerly inhabited by two nations that were separated from each other by the Danube. The *Hermunduri* possessed the lands on the north of the river, and the country on the south was peopled by the *Vindelici*. The *Narisci*, a people less important than either of the two former, were settled in the country that extends from the declivities of the Bœhmer-Wald, or Bohemian forest,[g] to the banks of the Danube, and from the embouchure of the Nab to that of the Ilz.

Hermunduri. The Hermunduri, says Tacitus, adored Mars and Mercury; they were often engaged in contests and bloody wars with the *Catti*, their northern neighbours. Their enemies were devoted to the gods, and if they proved victorious, all the vanquished, men, women, and children, were slaughtered without remorse.[h] The same people yielded, however, to the arms of the Romans, and became their faithful allies. Thus they were the only people that were permitted to travel through the neighbouring colonies. While, continues the historian, other nations are only allowed to see our arms and camps, our town and country houses are open to the Hurmunduri.[i]

Narisci. The Narisci, who, according to Tacitus, inhabited a country in the neighbourhood of the last people, were not inferior to them in bravery and courage.[k]

The ancients have left us but little information relative to the Narisci; nothing remarkable concerning them is mentioned by Ptolemy or Dion Cassius; it may, however, be observed that the first writer calls them *Varisti*, and the second the *Naristæ*.

Vindelici. The Vindelici were scattered over the country which extends from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the

[f] The following, according to the most authentic maps, are the dimensions of these lakes:

	Length. Miles.	Mean Breadth. Miles.
Ammer	10	2½
Wurn	11½	2½
Chiem	9	3¼
Staffel	4	1½
Kochel	4	2½
Walchen	5	2½
Tegern	4	1¼
Bartholomeus	4	1½

[g] Ptolemy, liber II. chap. II. Strabo calls the same forest *Sylva Gabreta*. [h] Tacitus, Annals, book XIII. sect. 57. [i] Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 42.
[k] Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 41.

Danube; the last river served for a boundary. According to D'Anville, the Vindelici were so called from two rivers, the ancient *Vindo*, or the modern Wertach, and the ancient *Licus*, or the modern Lech.[1] As they were settled on the banks of these rivers from the most remote antiquity, such an etymology does not appear improbable. The Vindelici were subject to the Romans, who, after their subjugation, called the country *Vindelicia;* it was at a later period joined to Rhetia, (*provincia Rhætia,*) where several Roman colonies were settled.

Settlements.

The most important of these settlements appears to have been the *Augusta Vindelicorum*, or the present Augsburg, which, according to different documents, formed *Oppidum Augusti*, or the town of Augustus. *Gambodunum*, another place of some consequence, was probably built on the site of Kempten. Ratisbon, on the Danube, or Regensberg, as it is sometimes called, was the ancient *Regina*, a name derived from the Regen, at the confluence of which it stands. Passau was the former *Batava-Castra;* Neu-Oetting, near Muldorf, seems to have been the Pons Œni, at all events, the remains of a Roman way are situated in the neighbourhood.

Bavaria during the middle ages.

Bavaria is the most ancient dutchy in Germany; it has retained its name, title, and even part of its constitution, since the fifth century. The Germans call it Bayern, a name which has probably some connexion with that of *Boii*, an ancient people, who were driven back into Bohemia by the Romans, and left their country about the middle of the fifth century along with the barbarians that have been denominated Ostrogoths.

Chiefs.

Aldiger, or Aldeger, is believed to have been the first chief or duke of Bavaria; he formed the design, in common with other German princes, of accompanying Clovis, and sharing his conquests; but after the victory at Tolbiac, Clovis confined the Germans within their former limits, and compelled the Bavarians and their chief to acknowledge his authority. To diminish the chances of a successful revolt, a colony of Franks was settled in that part of Germany, which has since been called Franconia, and the dukes of Bavaria were made tributary to its sovereigns. The Bavarians began to embrace Christianity in the time of Theudo the Third, the grandson of Aldiger; they submitted to the kings of Austrasia, after the vast monarchy of the Franks was divided.

Thassilo.

The weakness of the last Merovingian kings enabled the Bavarians to shake off the yoke; the country recovered its freedom about the year 786, but much about the same time, Thassilo, a Bavarian duke, of the Agilolfingian family, excited a rebellion in different parts of Germany, which was not quelled until Charlemagne marched against him, and forced him to acknowledge his sovereignty. Thassilo having revolted a second time in the following year, was cited before the diet at Ingelheim, accused of high treason, and condemned to death. But his punishment was commuted by Charlemagne, who deprived him of his dominions, and confined him first in the abbey of Lauresheim, and afterwards in the monastery of Jumiege. Thassilo, although a weak prince, became an excellent monk, and died with a great reputation for sanctity.

The country divided by Charlemagne.

Charlemagne having made himself master of Bavaria, divided it into several counties, and appointed rulers and princes over them. The government of the same country was again changed after the division of the monarchy between the sons of Lewis, surnamed the German, who chose Ratisbon for the place of his residence. The dominions of Lewis were inherited by his children, and Carloman became king of Bavaria. Arnoult, or Arnold, the natural son of Carloman, succeeded his father, and was elected king of Germany.

[1] Geographie ancienne, tome I. page 47.

Margraves. Luitpold, or Leopold, was probably the first who was named Margrave of the country by the German kings, in the ninth century. The dignity of count or duke of Bavaria was not hereditary; the emperors conferred it on different princes until the thirteenth century; at that time Lewis the Old, of the house of Wittelsbach, duke of Lower Bavaria, and count palatine of the Rhine, left two sons, Rodolphus and Lewis, who were the founders of the palatine or Rodolphine, and the Bavarian or Ludovician families. The lineal descendants of the Ludovician branch retained the dutchy of Bavaria, which was raised into an electorate in 1618; it became extinct in the year 1777, and a collateral descendant of the palatine family is at present seated on the throne of Bavaria.[m]

Soil. The soil in the higher part of the kingdom, is of an ordinary quality, but the plains and low vallies are very productive. The lands in the northern districts are for the most part light, the soil in the south is heavy and fruitful. The Bavarian government has encouraged agriculture, but it may be necessary in the first place to overcome the ignorance and indolent habits of the peasantry, which are obstacles to every sort of improvement.

Agriculture. More than a third part of the ground on the Isar, the lower Danube and the Regen, is still uncultivated; within the last few years, marshes have been drained at the expense of government, and waste lands have been rendered arable. But these operations are attended with a considerable outlay of capital; their accomplishment is thus retarded, although their utility has been always admitted. The differences, which are obvious in the cultivation of the same sort of land in a country under the same government, can only be attributed to the knowledge or ignorance of the agriculturists. A more improved system of cultivation than any other in Bavaria, may be observed in the circles of Rezat, the upper Danube, the upper and lower Maine; in the same districts, too, the harvests are most abundant. The products, it must be confessed, are not so great as in lower Saxony and Flanders; still the inhabitants are industrious, and not ignorant of their true interests. The last mentioned districts are the wealthiest in Bavaria, and the rich harvests that are reaped in them compensate in some degree for the deficiency in other parts of the country.

The circles of the upper and lower Maine, yield not only different kinds of grain, but wine and fruits. Agriculture, which was formerly neglected on the heights of the Spessart, has made great advances of late years. Potatoes and bread form the principal food of the inhabitants. The harvests in some other districts, as well as on these mountains, hardly suffice for the consumption; it ought, however, to be mentioned, that government makes use of every means by which knowledge can be diffused among the people; and the Bavarians may ere long be sensible that the elements of their prosperity depend on the cultivation of their country.

Domestic animals. The rearing of cattle forms, after agriculture, the principal source of territorial wealth; the meadows that extend along the banks of rivers, are well adapted for this purpose. It may be remarked, that in those districts where agriculture has arrived at a certain degree of perfection, care has been taken to improve the different breeds. Thus it appears that one branch of industry cannot be established without creating another; the plan of artificial irrigation, practised with so much success, not only in the circle of Rezat, but in the upper and lower Maine, has produced verdant and luxuriant meadows, in which numerous flocks and herds are fattened. It must be admitted that the breed of cattle might be still much improved; for it is obvious that little attention has hitherto been bestowed by the Bavarians on the form and proportions of these animals. If the oxen on the declivities of the Alps rival in symmetry any in the Swiss

[m] See Historisch-Statistische Uebersicht soemmtlicher Provinzen und Bestandtheile des Kœnigreichs Baiern, by J. Marx, baron of Leichtenstern.

Cantons, it is equally true that the produce of the dairy, and the rearing of cattle, make up the chief wealth of the people in the lofty country that extends to the south of Munich. Many goats are fed in the same districts and in most of the mountains which bound the kingdom.

The hog is fattened in almost every part of Bavaria, and in many places, the flesh of that animal forms the principal sustenance of the people. Hogs.

The same remarks that were made concerning the Bavarian oxen, are still more applicable to the horses; the inhabitants appear to have been perhaps more careless in improving the breed of that useful animal. The number of horses was considerably diminished during the last wars, and it has not been sufficiently increased since the peace. Although horses are seldom used for agricultural purposes, it must nevertheless be confessed, that government, by neglecting to multiply and improve them, renders itself in the event of a war, dependant on foreign powers. Horses.

The landed proprietors pay great attention to their sheep; the native breed has been crossed with the Merinos; other experiments have been conducted with much sagacity and corresponding success. If there be a greater demand for the cloth and woollen manufactures in Bavaria, it must be attributed to these causes.

The peasants in some districts, have found it profitable to carry on a trade in honey; but that branch of rural economy was more flourishing than at present, although the use of wax has now become more common. The circles of the Rezat and the upper Danube are most favourable for bees. It may, on the whole, be concluded that the Bavarians have been surpassed by the inhabitants of other countries, in two important branches of rural industry, in rearing cattle and other domestic animals, and in their method of husbandry. But it is rather to the quality than quantity of live stock that their attention ought to be directed; for it appears from a statistical work published a few years ago, that the proportion of cattle to surface was as one for every five acres of land. What has been stated concerning the system of agriculture may now be repeated; in both cases, the ignorance and even superstition of the country people, are the principal obstacles to improvement. So long as the peasants and farmers, neglecting the best means of curing or arresting the progress of contagious disorders among the lower animals, lead their diseased flocks to distant pilgrimages, it is vain to expect any amendment in whatever appertains to rural economy.[a] Bees.

The art of gardening has made some advances of late years; at least a considerable portion of ground has been laid out in nurseries and flower gardens; but it ought not to be inferred that horticulture has arrived at the same degree of perfection which it has attained in other countries. The culture of vegetables and culinary plants is principally confined to the neighbourhood of large towns. Horticulture.

It has already been observed, that the vine is cultivated in the circles of the Rezat and the lower Maine. The wines of Franconia are produced in the last department, and the best vineyards are those on the banks of the Leiste, not far from Steinberg, in the vicinity of Saleck and Wurtzburg. The wines next to them in repute are those of Calmuth, Eiweilstadt, Sommerach, and Eschendorf, and also those produced from the vineyards on the lake of Constance. It may be remarked that the culture of the vine is well understood in Bavaria. Wines.

The woods and forests are committed to the Bavarian government, and the care of them furnishes employment to several Woods and forests.

[a] More than eighteen thousand landed proprietors, farmers, and peasants, went on a pilgrimage with their flocks to Greisbach in 1820; nearly thirty thousand performed the same journey in the following year. See the work entitled Weber des Zustand des Koenigreichs Baiern, by M. Rudhart, director of the government of Ratisbon, 1825.

thousand individuals. The most ordinary trees are the oak and the beech; the first grows luxuriantly, and the second, which is much more common, reaches in some places to the height of more than a hundred feet. The birch, the ash, and several coniferous trees, have been planted. The most extensive forests in Bavaria are situated on the Spessart, the Rhœne-Gebirge, Zwiesler, Mitten, Kulwald, Retzer, Lorenz, and in the neighbourhood of Kempten. Their superficial extent has been calculated to amount to five millions, six hundred and fifty-nine thousand acres. It is supposed that they occupy a twenty-ninth part of all the land in the kingdom, which gives the proportion of nearly eight acres for every family.[o]

The ignorance of the country people is not the only barrier to the measures contemplated by government for advancing the welfare of the state. The plans proposed by government have been counteracted by different feudal institutions, tithes, baronial rights, the privilege of hunting, and statute labour exacted from the peasantry. These, and other customs equally antiquated, have hitherto been maintained by those who profit by them. It is in vain that every man has been permitted by a recent law to use his property as he pleases; so long as feudal burdens continue, so long as the greater portion of the inhabitants are degraded by servile offices, land must be almost an illusory possession. The freedom of agriculture has been proclaimed in vain: if the woods are under the management of persons appointed by the government, if the culture of the vine is subject to regulations that emanate from the same quarter, if the nobles are permitted to examine whether the lands of the other proprietors are well or ill cultivated, and to propose alterations, agriculture is still in its infancy.

Many changes must be introduced before the country can be improved; the land must be more equally divided; waste lands and part of the forests, for they are too extensive, must be granted to those who undertake to bring them into cultivation; nay, the new proprietors must be exempt from every tax and contribution for a greater or less period, according to circumstances. Many of the pastures are too poor to be of much use in fattening cattle; premiums might therefore be given to the proprietors that are willing to cultivate them. The right of pasturing on private property may with advantage be abolished. It might be wished that the inhabitants would provide the best sort of food for their cattle, and prevent them from being exposed day and night to the inclemency of the weather. The woods in the fertile meadows are so much waste land; but the nobles will not suffer them to be cut, because they serve to shelter game. It was unwise in the legislature to fix the *minimum* of landed property that a man can possess; it was still more so to hinder any one from building a house on his land, if it does not amount to a certain number of acres. It is obvious, that while these and other laws are enforced, the country can never be in such a state of prosperity as it might be expected to attain, considering the industry of the inhabitants and the nature of the soil.[p]

Quarries and Mines.

Many quarries, containing different kinds of stone, are worked in the country; the other mineral substances are coal, lead, and copper; but all these are of little value, if compared with the products of the salt and iron mines. The most abundant saline springs are situated in the circle of the Isar near Reichenhall, Traunstein and Rosenheim; they yield annually about four hundred thousand quintals of salt; the mine at Berschtesgaden furnishes about a hundred and fifty thousand; another near Orb, twenty-four thousand; and a third at Kissingen, upwards of sixteen thousand: but in order to supply the wants of the population, government, in consequence of a special treaty, receives every year from Hall two hun-

[o] See the work of M. Rudhart;—Uber den Zustand des Kœnigreichs Baiern.

[p] See the letter addressed to the provincial assembly on the laws relative to agriculture, by M. de Hazzi.

dred and sixty thousand hundred weight of salt, which, after the necessary process of purification, is reduced to a hundred and ninety thousand.

The iron mines in the territory of Amberg yield from forty to fifty thousand hundred weight; those in the circle of the Upper Maine from eighty to ninety thousand, and others in the circle of the Isar on the heights of Kressen, about a hundred and twenty thousand; the produce of all the mines in other parts of the country may be equal to thirty thousand, so that the whole produce throughout the kingdom amounts to three hundred thousand quintals. The circle of the Upper Maine is the only one in Bavaria proper in which coal is worked, but the quantity obtained does not exceed 300,000 quintals, or not more than a third of what is extracted from the circle of the Rhine. Iron.

Different branches of industry are still in a less advanced state than agriculture; there are however sixteen iron works, several wire manufactures, and two of fire arms. The moderate degree of perfection to which some of the arts have attained, has been partly the effect of rewards and encouragements given by government. Coarse linen can only be manufactured in the country, all the fine linens are imported. The same may be said of woollen stuffs and different kinds of cloth, they form a considerable branch of importation. Cottons and hats are manufactured in different parts of Bavaria. Industry.

It may be allowed that in some articles, the Bavarians have acquired a decided superiority over their neighbours; thus the different kinds of leather which they manufacture, are exported, and Saxony is supplied with paper from the same country. The musical, surgical and mathematical instruments made at Munich, are sold in many parts of Germany, and the playing cards of Nuremberg are exported into different countries in Europe and America. The glass, porcelain and earthen works in the kingdom, suffice for the supply of the inhabitants. The number of cambric and lace manufactures is too insignificant to require notice. It ought to be mentioned that the administration, anxious to correct gradually all the abuses connected with the ancient government, encouraged industry by abolishing in 1827 the offices of wardens and masters in the different corporations.

It follows from what has been already said that the commerce of Bavaria cannot be very important. Fortunately for the country, its situation enables the inhabitants to communicate with different states, and by this means puts them in possession of a considerable carrying trade. Commerce.

There is only one navigable canal in the kingdom, and it serves to unite the Rhine with the plains of Franconia. Another canal, which was begun by Charlemagne, in order to form a communication between the Rhine and the Danube, and which has since been recommenced at different times, is not likely to be ever finished. Commercial transactions are facilitated by the course of the principal rivers, such as the Danube, the Rhine, the Maine, the Regnitz, the Inn and the Salzach, by numerous and well kept roads, that extended in 1812 to the distance of more than a thousand and eighty German miles, or nearly four thousand three hundred and ten English miles, and lastly, by the posts, which, although expensive, are very expeditious.

The corn trade was in a flourishing state a few years ago, it has since been destroyed by the restrictions imposed on it by government. It may excite surprise that so few statesmen are acquainted with the most elementary truths of political economy. It is not wonderful that the vulgar confound corn merchants with forestallers, eager only to occasion famine, or to enrich themselves at the expense of the people; but it is painful to confess that the same prejudices are common to them with men called to the government of kingdoms. It might almost be inferred that Smith, Condillac, Say, and other great economists, had written in Corn trade.

vain, if such men are ignorant that products of every kind belong to commerce, and that commerce must be free in order to be advantageous to the community.

The Bavarian ministers have at last begun to encourage inland navigation, vessels constructed at the expense of the state, now sail on the Danube; the example of government will without doubt be imitated by capitalists; the Isar and the Maine covered with vessels of the same sort, or with steam boats, may facilitate the transport of agricultural products, which under a better system might form the principal wealth of the country.[p]

Population. | Less accurate information has been obtained concerning the population of Bavaria, than any other state in Germany; it appears however that a census was made in 1822, and according to it, the number of inhabitants amounted to 3,566,300. M. Hassel cannot be supposed ignorant of that census, still in his statistical tables of the same year, he estimates the population at 3,630,800.[q] An author, well known for his accuracy, has concluded from new data and other calculations that the number in 1827 was equal to 3,940,000.[r] If these different results be correct, the population in Bavaria must increase in a very rapid progression, for the difference in five years exceeds 350,000 individuals.

Religion. | The inhabitants in the circles of the Rhine, are included in the numbers that have been now stated; but the population of Bavaria proper, amounted probably in 1827 to 3,510,000 individuals, and at least four-fifths of them were catholics.

The tables at the end of this chapter are so full as to render further details unnecessary: one observation may however be made, and it is, that no civil restrictions on account of religion, are imposed on the people in Bavaria. Catholics, Calvinists and Lutherans enjoy the same rights; government never interferes in questions connected with the forms of worship or the religious opinions of the different sects. According to the last concordate, the kingdom is divided into two archbishopricks, the one at Munich, the other at Bamberg, and into six dioceses, those of Passau, Ratisbon, Augsburg, and the suffragan dioceses of Eichstedt, Wurtzburg and Speyer. The protestants acknowledge the general consistory at Munich, as their highest ecclesiastical court; and the Israelites are under the authority of their rabbis, whose nomination must be approved by government.

Inhabitants. | The Bavarians have retained some characteristic traits of the different people from whom they are descended. The inhabitants of ancient Swabia are sober, but ignorant and superstitious; the Franks, or the people of ancient Franconia, are lively, cunning and enterprising; the Bavarians proper, sprung from a mixed race—the *Vindelici* and the *Boii*, are grave, loyal, faithful to their engagements, constant in their affections, attached to the ceremonies rather than the duties of religion, ready to make any sacrifice, if the priest commands it in the name of the Divinity.

The state of society is not so unexceptionable as might be imagined; the vices in the great towns are but too evident, they may be easily accounted for; but the number of natural children in the rural and mountainous districts, announces a degree of corruption, that may perhaps be chiefly attributed to the ignorance of the inhabitants.

Education. | Government, convinced of that important truth, has at length made some attempts to provide for the instruction of the people. A school has been established in every parish; the time may come when there will be one in every village, when the inhabitants of the hamlets may participate in the benefits of education. The higher orders of society

[p] See Wochenblatt des Lundw. Vereins in Baiern, 1823. [q] Statistischer Umriss de sæmmtlichen Europœischen, etc., 1823. [r] Balance politique du globe, M. Adrian Balbi.

possess greater advantages in this respect; lyceums, colleges and universities have been instituted in several towns, but their number is not sufficient for the wants of the middling classes, which in Bavaria may rank among the most enlightened in Europe.

Constitution.

What has been said of the character and education of the Bavarians, leads us naturally to consider their government, for it is found that knowledge may be most easily diffused among the people under constitutional governments. According to the act passed on the twenty-sixth of May, 1818, Bavaria forms an indivisible kingdom; the domains of the state cannot be alienated, the crown is hereditary, and the person of the king inviolable. There is no civil list, the king determines the expenses of his household, and the princes receive for their appenage a sum that has not hitherto exceeded 150,000 florins. The revenue of the queen mother has been fixed at two hundred thousand, and each princess receives a hundred thousand for her dowry.

Chambers.

The general assembly of the states is made up of two chambers. The princes of the royal family, the great officers of state, the two archbishops, some of the nobles, a bishop nominated by the king, and the president of the protestant consistory, are members of the upper chamber. The king has it besides in his power to appoint hereditary members, or members for life; the number of the latter cannot exceed a third of the former. The chamber of representatives consists of a hundred and fifteen deputies; fourteen are chosen by the nobles, as many by the clergy, twenty-eight by the burgesses, and fifty-six by the landed proprietors; the universities appoint the remaining three, who must belong to the catholic, lutheran or calvinistic communions, they cannot be elected before the age of thirty. The proportion between the number of representatives to families, was supposed to be in the ratio of one to seven thousand: the members are chosen every six years. The executive power is in the hands of the king, and the ministry consists of five members. According to the fundamental law of the constitution, no one can be imprisoned or condemned but by the sentence of a judge; all the citizens are eligible to the different offices of state, and all are obliged to enter the military service.[1]

It may be superfluous to make any remarks on the merits or imperfections of the constitution, since at the time it was enacted, the necessity of some modifications was acknowledged. While some writers hailed it as the dawn of freedom in Bavaria, others considered it very imperfect. "The Bavarians," says M. Hazzi,[2] "can derive but little advantage from the abolition of personal slavery, while a magistrate, in the plenitude of his authority or caprice, can inflict corporal punishment on the burgesses and peasants, and while an officer can degrade his soldiers in the same manner. The condition of the husbandmen can never be improved, so long as labour, different services, and every sort of feudal burden are imposed on them. It is of little use that a vague law entitles any individual to purchase exemption from such hardships, since there is no law by which the purchase-money has been fixed. Religious liberty has been declared a fundamental principle of the constitution; but the Mennonites, Moravians, Anabaptists, Jews, all those, in short, who are neither Catholics, Calvinists, nor Lutherans, are deprived of political privileges. A Bavarian is not permitted to migrate without the consent of government, and then it must be to one of the confederated states; if he does so of his own accord, his property may be confiscated."

Orders of knighthood.

The king is great master of five orders of knighthood; they are, the order of Saint Hubert, those of Saint George and Saint Michael, the military order of Max-Joseph, and the civil order of Merit.

[1] See Hassel's geography. [2] See his work entitled Ueber die Standpuncte der Baierischen Verfassmegs-Urkunde von, 1818. See also the Bulletin Universel des Sciences et de l'Industrie, section des sciences geographiques. First Part, 1825.

Army. The Bavarian army corresponds with the rank which the state holds in the Germanic confederation. The conscription still exists, and the military force in the kingdom consists of fifty-four thousand men, and a numerous reserve. The contingent to the confederation has been fixed at thirty-five thousand; the period of military service is limited to five years. The troops for the protection of the country are trained after the manner of the French gendarmes. A military establishment so disproportionate to the number of inhabitants, can only be maintained during war by measures so severe as might appear almost insupportable. Every strong man must enter the army, either into the active service or the reserve.

Finance. The revenue of Bavaria may amount to 35,000,000 florins, and the national debt to 110,000,000.* These results are not satisfactory, but what has been lately gained by economy and retrenchments, not only in the expenditure of the state, but of the court, cannot fail to improve the finances of the kingdom. The promises of government, which have been partially realized, may be considered a pledge that others made from the throne at the opening of the session in 1828, will also be fulfilled. The sovereign has publicly declared his intention to establish provincial councils, to render the administration of justice less expensive, to divide the taxes and imposts more uniformly, to enter into commercial treaties with neighbouring nations, to inform the public through the journals of the debates and proceedings in the different courts, and lastly, to introduce a new penal-code adapted to the present wants of society. Such resolutions are the best guarantee of the future prosperity of the kingdom.

Divisions. Bavaria is divided into eight circles, namely, those of the Isar, the Lower Danube, the Regen, the Upper Maine, the Rezat, the Upper Danube, the Lower Maine, and the Rhine. The last circle shall be described separately, it forms no part of Bavaria proper. The capital of the Isar, or the Iser, is also the capital of the kingdom.

Munich. Munich rises on an extensive plain between the heights on the Isar and the Galgen. It may occupy nearly the same extent of ground as Vienna, if the suburbs of the last town be not taken into account. It has been considered one of the finest cities in Germany, it stands on the Isar, at the height of more than nineteen hundred feet above the level of the sea. It cannot be called a regularly built town, modern houses are placed near edifices which have stood for more than four hundred years; but it must be admitted, however, that several streets are straight, broad and well paved. The number of houses amounts to three thousand one hundred and eighty, and the population to sixty-five thousand individuals. The squares, or places, as the inhabitants call them, contribute chiefly to the embellishment of the town; the most remarkable are those of Max-Joseph, Anger, Arms, and Maximilian. The public buildings are the palaces of Max and William, the house in which the chambers meet, another that serves as a residence for the minister of the interior, the townhouse, the new mint, the two principal theatres, and the academy of sciences, formerly the college of the Jesuits, the finest of any that the order possessed in Europe.

Royal palace. The royal palace may be styled a model of architecture; it was a common saying in former times, owing, perhaps, to the magnificence, as well as the great size of the interior, that all the kings in Christendom might reside in the palace at Munich. Many valuable curiosities are to be seen in the court chapel, among others a painting by Michael Angelo, the small altar at which Mary Stuart performed her devotions, when in confinement, a reliquary adorned with ancient cameos, a pearl of the greatest beauty, known in Europe by the name of the palatine

* See for the budget of 1820, Allgem. Justis Kamer, &c. 1825.

pearl, and, lastly, a piece of native gold, weighing more than twenty-two pounds. There are several collections in the royal palace, one of a hundred and thirty miniatures, which have been supposed to be worth more than 30,000*l.* it may be added too, that some paintings by the greatest masters are to be seen in the Maximilian gallery.

It may be sufficient to mention one of the twenty-two churches, that of St. Mary, formerly *Frauen-Kirche*, or the church of women; not fewer than thirty altars are contained in it; its finest ornaments are several valuable paintings, and a mausoleum of the emperor Lewis of Bavaria. The two turrets of the same building rise to the height of three hundred and thirty feet above the ground; it may be easily inferred that they command an extensive view, hence most strangers who visit the town, ascend them.

Public collections.

The public collections of Munich are highly valuable; more than thirteen hundred paintings by celebrated masters are contained in the royal academy, and there is a fine collection of drawings and mosaics in the ancient convent of the Theatines. The number of volumes in the royal library exceeds four hundred thousand, and amongst them are eight thousand five hundred manuscripts, and more than twenty thousand volumes, published when the art of printing was still in its infancy. One of them is a bible by Guttenberg Faust, printed in the year 1450. More than a hundred thousand Greek and Roman gold coins form part of a collection of medals; the museum of natural history, the observatory, the schools of chemistry and anatomy, contain whatever is useful in such institutions.

Places of education.

A royal institute consists of different schools, one of philosophy, another of medicine and surgery, a third of the veterinary art, and a fourth, which is set apart for the poor students from all the towns in the kingdom. The other public seminaries are those for the cadets and pages of the king, the Maximilian boarding schools for the daughters of the nobles, and different elementary and gratuitous schools.

Charitable institutions.

It might be easy to enumerate several establishments for the relief of the indigent, hospitals for the old of both sexes, others for orphans, foundlings, and lunatics. It may be remarked too that most of these establishments were founded by pious and philanthropic inhabitants of the town; some have existed for more than four hundred years, and since that period, virtuous citizens, guided by the purest philanthropy, have used their utmost efforts to mitigate wretchedness and misfortune, without being in any way assisted or encouraged by government. Now, that their example is followed by the state, the means of relief are greater, the repression of mendicity more effectual; indeed, travellers have declared that fewer mendicants are to be seen in Munich than in any other town of the same size in Germany. It rarely happens that the children of the lower orders accustom themselves early to indolence, by depending for a subsistence on the alms, which their importunity extorts. The children, who are found begging in the towns or in the country, are removed from that degrading state,—the source of so many vices—and educated at the public expense, until they are able to support themselves by their labour.

Houses of correction have been built for the confinement of vagrants; in short, it may be sufficient to terminate the account of the charitable institutions in the capital, by stating that the plan proposed by Count Rumford, an individual to whom humanity is so much indebted, has been realized at Munich. Food is gratuitously provided to six hundred persons, in an edifice erected for the purpose. A secret passage leads to the interior of the building; those who wish to conceal their poverty from their fellow-citizens enter it, and receive, without being seen, a sufficient quantity of wholesome provisions. It has been affirmed that respectable individuals, victims to the vicissitudes of fortune, are thus better enabled to endure the hardships of poverty.

Academies. The two most celebrated academies at Munich, are those of the arts and sciences. The latter is divided into three classes, the first, or that of philology and philosophy, consists of six members; the second, or the physical and mathematical, is made up of thirteen, and the historical of eight. Every class has its secretary and honorary members. The king is the patron, and there is, besides, a general secretary of the whole academy. A director, a secretary, eight ordinary, thirty honorary, and forty corresponding members, form the academy of arts.

Trade. The residence of the court at Munich is the means of furnishing employment to many inhabitants; others are provided for by government offices. The manufactures of the town, are cloth, leather, hardware goods, jewellery, and tapestry, which has been considered little inferior to that of Gobelins. Although there are several fairs every year, and corn markets every week, the trade of Munich has not risen into much importance. The castle of Nimphenburg, a royal residence at a league to the north-west of the capital, is built after the model of the one at Versailles, and the grounds are laid out with great taste.

Landshut. Landshut on the Isar, is, after Munich, the finest town in Bavaria; its name signifies the hat of the country; and it was, in the feudal times, a place of protection for the people against the exactions of the barons. It stands on the declivity of a hill, which commands the castle of Traunitz, built by the ancient dukes of Bavaria, and since changed into an observatory, to which a botanical garden has been attached. The finest buildings in Landshut, are, the university, attended by six or seven hundred students, the exchequer, the townhouse, and St. Martin's church, of which the steeple rises about four hundred and twenty feet above the ground. The places of charity are two hospitals and two poor-houses.

Library collections, &c. The public library consists of a hundred thousand volumes. A collection of coins and medals, another of mathematical and philosophical instruments, and a museum of mineralogy belong to the university. A theatre of anatomy, as well as a school of medicine and surgery, are open to those who study the medical profession.

Trade, population. The town possesses little or no trade; there are not more than five manufactories, and none of them are of any consequence. It was probably on that account that government determined to transfer the university from Ingolstadt to Landshut. The population does not exceed eight thousand five hundred inhabitants.

Freysing. Freysing, situated on the Isar, at an equal distance from Munich and Landshut, contains a castle, a fine cathedral, a normal school, and an institution for the deaf and dumb; it is peopled by three thousand six hundred individuals.

It is only necessary to mention those towns which are worthy of notice from their importance, the recollections connected with them, or the monuments they contain. It ought to be remarked that Bavaria differs from the petty principalities that have been described, inasmuch as it contains several large and flourishing cities; as to the towns of two or three thousand inhabitants, it may be best to add a list of them with their population to the statistical tables at the end of the chapter.

Passau. The principal places in the circle of the Isar have been already mentioned, some account shall now be given of the other departments. Passau, or the chief town in the circle of the lower Danube, is situated in a very romantic country, at the confluence of the Ils, the Inn, and the Danube. It is in all probability the most ancient city in Bavaria; it consists of four quarters, Passau, or the Old town, Instadt, on the right bank of the Inn, Ilstadt, on the right bank of the Ils, and the suburbs of Anger, defended by the castles of Oberhaus and Unterhaus, and also by eight forts, formerly known by the names of eight French generals. The suburbs of Instadt and Ilstadt communicate with the town by bridges. The

principal buildings in Passau are an archiepiscopal palace, a large cathedral, and three parish churches, one of which, St. Mary of the Capuchins, was famous for its miracles. It has, besides, two public schools, a gymnasium, an infirmary, an orphan hospital, and five others.

Although advantageously situated for commerce, it possesses an inconsiderable trade, which consists in silk, wine, and grain. The town is on the whole well built, and the population, including that in the different suburbs, amounts to ten thousand five hundred inhabitants. Passau was the place where Charles the Fifth and Maurice of Saxony concluded a treaty, by which the Reformation was confirmed in Germany.[x] The rural palaces of Freudenheim, Lœwenhof and Rabengut are situated in the neighbourhood. | Trade, population.

Of the many pearl fisheries on the Ils, some are not far from Passau; these pearls are produced by a fresh water muscle, the *Mytullus margaritefer* of Linnæus. The animal having no means of resistance, says the Swedish naturalist, forms the pearls to defend itself against the attacks of a formidable enemy; an aquatic worm perforates its shell and feeds on it; the only way by which it can escape, after an opening has been made, is by filling it by a calcareous secretion from its body. If the secretion be too great, it forms a tubercle that may be easily detached from the shell. The finest pearls are round and of a white colour. | Fresh water pearls.

Straubing, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, is advantageously situated on a height, near the banks of the Danube. It was the Castra Augusta of the Romans; it carries on at present a considerable trade in earthenware; its crucibles are exported into different countries. The principal edifices are a castle, seven churches, one of them with a steeple two hundred and forty feet in height, four hospitals, and a townhouse. The places of education are a gymnasium and several schools. The fine Abbey of Ober-Altaich, famous for its valuable library, is situated in the vicinity. | Straubing.

The burgh of Bodenmais is known to mineralogists from the minerals collected in the neighbourhood, and to landscape painters from the cataracts on the Riss and the Mosbach. The importance of the place depends on its mines and vitriol works; the latter furnish every year a supply of nearly two thousand quintals. | Bodenmais.

Ratisbon, the chief town in the circle of Regen, was formerly the capital of Bavaria, and the residence of the ancient German kings of the Carlovingian race. Having been erected into a free and imperial city by the emperor Frederick the First, it was afterwards restored to Bavaria in the year 1486. It became a second time independent in 1502, and continued so until the year 1803. Lastly, when the great dutchy of Frankfort was founded, it and its territories were included in the dominions of Bavaria. The town had been the seat of the imperial diets from the year 1662 to that period. Many of the houses were built with wood, and it was seven times almost reduced to ashes between the years 891 and 1642. Two ecclesiastics were burnt at Ratisbon in 1418, because they maintained that John Huss had been unjustly condemned to death by the council of Constance. The townsmen recollected when the greater part of them embraced the Augsburg confession in 1542, that these two clergymen had been the victims of intolerance and fanaticism. A famous battle between the French and the Austrians, which lasted five days, and in which Napoleon received a slight wound on the heel, was fought under its walls in 1809. A great part of the town was on that occasion destroyed; a hundred and thirty-four houses were consumed, and the loss sustained is said to have amounted to one million five hundred thousand florins. | Ratisbon.

[x] See Sleidan's history of the Reformation.

Population, &c. | The same town is called Regensburg by the Germans, it contains 26,000 inhabitants, it is encompassed with walls, but not defended with fortifications. There are not fewer than twenty-eight churches, the cathedral, or the finest, was finished in 1400. It is unnecessary to mention the hospital and different seminaries for the education of youth. The museums and collections are worthy of an important town; it possesses a valuable gallery of paintings, and not less valuable libraries. The principal buildings are the castle, the townhouse, where the Germanic diets assembled, and a bridge of fifteen arches across the Danube, a thousand and ninety-one feet in length.

Kepler's monument. | A monument has been erected in honour of Kepler, who died in the town. It seems as if the contending armies had spared this tribute to the memory of the man who determined the revolutions and orbits of the heavenly bodies; it was finished in 1808, and received no injury in the following year, during the engagement by which Ratisbon was almost destroyed. The streets are narrow and crooked, but clean and well paved. The houses are very high, and built in the German style. The manufactures are neither numerous nor important; vessels are built for the navigation of the river, and the principal trade consists in the transport of goods.

Don Juan of Austria. | Ratisbon was the birth-place of Don Juan of Austria, the natural son of Charles the Fifth, and perhaps the most extraordinary general that flourished in the sixteenth century; he gained the battle of Lepanto, kept the Netherlands under the dominion of Spain, and was at last poisoned by his brother, that suspicious tyrant, Philip the Second, who feared that he might become sovereign of Flanders.

Stadt-am-Hoff or the town of the court may be considered a suburbs of Ratisbon, as it is only separated from it by a bridge. It was reduced to ashes in 1809, but it has since been rebuilt and improved; the population amounts to fifteen hundred inhabitants.

Amberg. | Amberg is situated about twelve leagues to the north of Ratisbon, and watered by the Vils, a river that throws itself into the Nab. It is surrounded with walls, and flanked with seventy turrets; the streets are straight, broad, and well built. The public buildings are the royal castle, the college, the arsenal and townhouse,—a Gothic edifice. It contains ten churches, six hospitals, an infirmary, several seminaries, a normal school, and eight thousand inhabitants. Sixty workmen are employed in making arms, and more than five thousand four hundred hundred weight of iron is obtained every year from the mines in the vicinity. The Vils is navigable for the small vessels that descend towards the Danube. Thus, the facility of communication with Ratisbon and other towns, its manufactures, cotton stuffs, tobacco, porcelain, and earthenware, render Amberg a place of considerable trade. It was on the plains which surround the town, that the archduke Charles compelled the French army under general Jourdan to retreat to the Rhine in 1796.

Ingolstadt. | Ingolstadt, on the right bank of the Danube, was formerly an important town in Bavaria; but its population at present is not, according to Hassel, greater than that of Amberg; its fortifications were destroyed in 1800. A Latin school has been opened since the university was transferred to Landshut.

Abensberg. | Abensberg, on the right bank of the same river, was the ancient *Abusina*, a city of the *Vindelici;* several Roman antiquities are still found near its walls. Although a small place of twelve hundred inhabitants, it has been encompassed with walls, which are flanked with thirty-two round and eight square turrets. It was formerly the residence of the counts of Abensberg, and a castle that belonged to them, may still be seen in the town.

Eichsteidt, a walled town on the banks of the Altmühl, is situated in a narrow but agreeable valley. There are four suburbs, three principal squares, and as many large streets; it was the chief town in the principality, that was ceded under the sovereignty of Bavaria to Eugene Beauharnois. The castle may be considered the finest edifice; next to it are the church of Walpurg, and the cathedral, where the tomb of Willibald the martyr was erected; these two churches and four others of a smaller size belong exclusively to the catholics. The town possesses a gymnasium, different schools, a public library, and several collections; it is peopled by more than eight thousand inhabitants. The land in the neighbourhood of Eichsteidt is fruitful, and produces corn, hops, lint, and fruits; few cattle are reared, but the country abounds with game, and the rivers are well stocked with fish. Iron mines, marble and other quarries are worked on the heights. | Eichsteidt.

Baireuth, the metropolis of the circle of the Upper Maine, is built on the banks of that river, in a pleasant valley, formed by branches of the Fichtel-Gebirge. The elevation of the town may be about six hundred and forty feet above the level of the sea. The streets are broad, regular, and well paved; they are surrounded with ancient walls and three suburbs, one of which is the small town of St. George. The finest buildings are the old castle of Sophienburg, and the new palace. Although the population consists of fourteen thousand inhabitants, there are not more than a thousand catholics; the latter have their church, and the Jews their synagogue. Baireuth contains several hospitals, a gymnasium, a theatre, and different manufactories. | Baireuth.

Bamberg, a town watered by the Reignitz, has been incorrectly considered the ancient *Bergium*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy; it is certain that Bamberg was not built long before the tenth century; it was the residence of the counts of the same name. The population amounts to nearly thirty thousand souls; in point of situation and architectural beauty, it may vie with any other town in Bavaria. The houses are built of free-stone; it is divided into three parts by two fine bridges; and the highest quarter rises majestically in the form of an amphitheatre, crowned by several hills. The castle of Petersberg has been much admired; among the other buildings, may be mentioned a fine church, that contains the ashes of the emperor Henry the Second and Cunegonde his wife, twenty-three other churches, fifteen chapels, three hospitals, an infirmary, and a house of correction—a very large edifice. | Bamberg.

A public library, a collection of natural history, and the archives of the country are deposited in the castle of Petersberg. Bamberg offers a singular contrast with Baireuth, inasmuch as it does not contain a thousand protestants. The places of education are numerous; the lyceum is attended by fifty pupils, the gymnasium by two hundred and fourteen; while the number of masters is not less than six. There are, besides, an ecclesiastical seminary, a normal school for thirty or forty pupils, and one of medicine, surgery, and midwifery. Bamberg was the birth-place of Camerarius the philologist. Although it possesses no great commerce, there are about fourteen hundred tradesmen of different kinds, eleven hundred workmen, three hundred apprentices, ten booksellers, four laboratories, and fifty-six breweries.

Hoff, at a short distance from the eastern frontier of the kingdom, is watered by the Saale; it contains several schools, a rich hospital, a library, and eight thousand inhabitants. Kulmbach, a pleasant town in the same department, is surrounded with walls, and situated on the banks of the White Maine. The streets are irregular, but well paved, and the market-place is remarkable for its size. Like every other town of any consequence in the circle, it contains a sufficient number of hospitals and charitable institutions. The population amounts to little | Hoff.

more than four thousand five hundred inhabitants. Plassenburg, at no great distance from the last town, stands between two lofty mountains; it has been mentioned on account of its fortress, now a state-prison, and the station of a good garrison.

Caverns—Fossil bones. | Some account may be given of Gailenreuth, a village in the same circle, situated on the west bank of the Wiesent, in the valley of the Reignitz; and famous for its natural caverns, many of which are filled with fossil bones, that have excited in later times the attention of naturalists. The largest of these cavities lies in a vertical rock, and bears the same name as the village; the entrance may be about seven feet in height, the length of the cave nearly eighty; it communicates by an aperture not more than two feet high, with a second cavity nearly a hundred and thirty feet long, and forty broad. The height of the second cave, near the aperture, is about eighteen feet, but it descends gradually until it becomes so low as five. A passage at the opposite extremity communicates with several others which lead to a third cavern about thirty feet in diameter, and five or six in height; the floor of this hall appears to be wholly crusted with the teeth and jaw bones of different animals. There is a cavity at its extremity to which one can descend by a ladder, and pass from it to a vault fifteen feet in diameter, and thirty in height; it communicates with a chamber covered with bones. A natural arcade below it leads to another cavern more than forty feet from the ground to the roof. This chamber terminates in a cavity or pit about eighteen or twenty feet in depth, and a passage from it communicates with a cave more than forty feet in height, and almost filled with bones. Passages lead from the last cave to one about twenty-five feet long, and twelve broad, to another twenty feet high, and lastly, to a third eighty feet in breadth, and twenty-four in height; it contains more bones than any of the rest. But this is not the end of the labyrinth, the stranger has to advance to the sixth and last cavern. All these subterranean chambers form a figure not unlike a semicircle. The fissures that are perceived in the calcareous rock, may perhaps be passages to other caverns; thus, it was found in 1784, that one of these fissures communicated with a chamber, filled with the bones of hyenas and lions. It has been remarked that the cleft was much too narrow for an entrance to these animals. The chamber terminates in a sort of arcade, and I observed in it, says M. Cuvier, an incredible number of bones and sculls.[7] It has been discovered that the animals, of which these are the remains, were bears, hyenas, tigers, wolves, foxes, gluttons, polecats, and others of a different nature, such as several kinds of deer. But the carnivorous animals are in so great a proportion, that out of a hundred bones, it is probable three belong to hyenas, five to wolves or foxes, two to tigers, three to gluttons, and eighty-seven to bears.

All these animals, different in their figure and dimensions from those of the present day, attest the past existence of a former world. If it be wished to determine why the bones of so many animals are collected in these places, it may be supposed either that they were the dens of wild animals that brought their prey into them; or, more probably, that an enormous number of carnivorous animals, with others of a different class, were accumulated in the cavities by an irruption of the waters.

Anspach. | More manufacturing and trading towns are situated in the circle of the Rezat than in any other in Bavaria. Ansbach, or the metropolis, which was formerly called Onolzbach, is now more generally known by the name of Anspach. There are eighteen public buildings, and the town is surrounded with walls. The principal edifices are the castle and chancery. The population amounts to seventeen thousand inhabitants, and the number of catholics does not exceed three hundred. The

[7] Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles, tome IV. page 295.

places of instruction are a gymnasium and several elementary schools. Anspach is not a town of much trade, the manufactures are leather, linen, and woollen stuffs.

Erlangen, or *Christian Erlangen*, on the Reignitz, is enclosed by walls, and divided into the old and new town; the streets are large and regular. It possesses, besides the only protestant university in the kingdom, many seminaries in which different branches of education are taught. The imperial academy of natural history was founded in the year 1666; the other institutions of the same sort are a physical society, another of medicine, and a third of agriculture and rural economy. It has excited surprise that so many useful institutions are contained, in a town of twelve thousand inhabitants. | Erlangen.

The trade and manufactures of Erlangen are of considerable importance, but in that respect it is inferior to Fürth, a well-built town on the same river. The Jews form about the fourth part of the population, which may be equal to sixteen thousand eight hundred individuals. They keep up, at their own expense, a separate tribunal, a university, two printing presses, three schools, a hospital, and four synagogues; such facts form the best answers that can be made to those who maintain that the Jews can never become good or useful citizens; indeed, in many places where the Jews participate in the rights of citizens, they may bear a comparison with the Christians who despise them. Fürth is one of the most industrious towns in Bavaria; it carries on a great trade in glass. | Furth.

Nurenberg, or Nurnberg, stands in the middle of a fruitful though sandy plain, and the Reignitz divides it into two parts. Surrounded with an outer and an inner wall, which render it not unlike two towns, turrets and bastions are built on both its enclosures. The streets are irregular, but broad and well paved; although the old castle cannot at present be called a fort, still it and almost all the other buildings in Nurenberg, may recall the residence of the princes or barons who flourished in feudal times, and whose power depended on the weakness of their neighbours. The paintings that cover the outer walls of many houses in Nurenberg give it a singular aspect. The townhouse is remarkable for the pictures and curiosities it contains; among other articles one may observe the glass out of which Luther used to drink. Some of the eight churches are adorned with fine paintings; the stained windows in the cathedral are admired, and those in the church of St. Claira are remarkable for their antiquity; they were made in the year 1278. A well more than five hundred and thirty-six feet in depth, is situated in one of the courts that communicates with the castle, an old building in which may be seen a valuable collection of paintings. The town is adorned with several fountains; it possesses a great many schools, a gymnasium, different literary and scientific societies, and five public buildings. | Nurenberg.

The commerce of Nurenberg must be considerable, since by means of it three hundred and fifty mercantile houses are maintained; not fewer than four hundred and eighty-seven different articles are made or manufactured within its walls. It has been supposed that it carries on a greater trade in cutlery than any other town in Germany; it contains two mints, a bank, and a mount of piety. The catholics make up a twentieth part of the population; the total number of inhabitants has been estimated by Hassel at thirty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five. | Commerce. Inventions.

Nurenberg was the birth-place of Albert Durer, the celebrated painter, and other distinguished men; indeed, if their inventions be considered, they are entitled to the gratitude of posterity. Peter Hele invented watches there; Rudolph, the drawing plates for iron wire; John Lobsinger, air-guns; Christopher Denner, the clarinet; Erasmus Ebener, the alloy known by the name of brass; Martin Behaim, the terrestrial sphere, which, with-

out doubt, contributed to the discovery of America; lastly, John Muschel improved different musical instruments.

Different towns. The other towns in the same circle might be considered insignificant after Nurenberg. Schwabach, on the river of the same name, is noted for its needles and cotton cloths; it contains nine thousand five hundred inhabitants. The small town of Bayerdorf on the Reignitz, carries on a trade in cutlery and hardware goods. Rothenburg is built in the Gothic style; it contains a fine townhouse, a library, valuable from its rare manuscripts, and a population of eight thousand persons. Dinkelsbühl, encompassed with walls, and flanked with turrets, is built like the last town, and peopled by seven thousand inhabitants.

Noerdlingen. Noerdlingen is well known in Bavaria for its bacon and geese; more than thirty thousand of the latter are annually exported. It is built on the Egger, and surrounded with ditches, ramparts, and turrets. St. Magdelen is the largest church in the town, and its steeple reaches to the height of three hundred and forty-three feet. The number of inhabitants amounts to seven thousand six hundred, and their trade consists in the produce of their manufactures, such as linen, worsted stockings, fustians, and horse-covers.

Circle of the Lower Maine. The circle of the Lower Maine is formed by the former great dutchy of Wurtzburg, the province of Aschaffenburg, different parts of Füld, and several districts ceded by Hesse.

Wurtzburg, or the capital, contains more than twenty thousand inhabitants; once an imperial town, it was afterwards subject to a bishop, one of whose prerogatives was to have a naked sword carried before him. The fortifications have fallen into decay, but the town is still defended by a high wall and a deep ditch. The Maine divides it into two parts, that on the right bank of the river is the ancient Wurtzburg, the other on the left bank, is called the quarter of the Maine. A fine bridge of eight arches, and five hundred and forty feet in length, forms a communication between the old and new towns.

The fortress of Marienburg, in the quarter of the Maine, rises on a rock about four hundred feet in height, and on the same hill are the ruins of an ancient building, which was supposed to have been a temple consecrated to *Freya*, the Venus of the Scandinavians. The old town, though irregularly built, is adorned by several fine buildings; such are the royal castle and the cathedral, the largest of the thirty-three churches, remarkable for many curious monuments, among others, a pulpit of the most finished workmanship. The large hospital of Julius, twelve others, and several charitable institutions, different libraries, scientific collections, numerous schools, a university, which was founded more than four hundred years ago,[a] and a considerable trade, particularly in wine, render the town one of the most valuable acquisitions which Bavaria has lately obtained.

Vineyards. The vineyards in the neighbourhood of Wurtzburg have been celebrated since the thirteenth century. The Leiste is more esteemed than the wines of Franconia; the Stein wine is produced on a territory that belongs to the hospital of Julius; it is sold in the country for four shillings the bottle. Another sort not less prized is known by the name of the holy spirit; it grows on the vineyards of Harpe, which belong mostly to the chapter of Hauch. The wines of Schalksberg and Calmus are little inferior to any that have been mentioned.

[a] Public instruction is committed to thirty-one professors and four teachers. The number of students in the winter session of 1825 and 1826, amounted to six hundred and seventy-six; namely, four hundred and ninety-seven Bavarians, and a hundred and seventy-nine foreigners; they belonged to the following faculties.

Theology	144
Law	213
Medicine	158
Philosophy	161

Karlstadt carries on a considerable trade in different wines. Sweinfurth on the same river, a town of seven thousand inhabitants, possesses an arsenal, a gymnasium, and several elementary schools. It is abundantly supplied with water from thirty-seven public fountains. The excellent wine of Saleck constitutes the trade of Hammelburg, a small town on the Saale. The five thousand inhabitants of Kitzingen are mostly engaged in a lucrative commerce, that of conveying goods to the south of Germany. The most remarkable building in the town is a bridge across the Maine, which leads to the suburbs of Edwashausen. The number of arches amounts to fifteen, and it is more than a thousand feet in length. As it does not exceed sixteen feet in breadth, it appears perhaps longer than it really is. Different towns.

Aschaffenburg is situated below the eastern declivities of the Spessart, on the banks of the Maine. Its importance depends on its schools and scientific collections, not on the number of its inhabitants, which does not exceed six thousand. A large castle in the middle of a park is the finest edifice near the town. It was a place of residence during the summer for the electors of Mayence. It possesses at present a trade in leather and beetrave sugar; it is besides the depot of the merchandise that descends the Maine, and the naval timber obtained from the forests on the Spessart. Aschaffenburg.

The circle of the Upper Danube derives its importance from the number of its towns, and the different branches of industry in which their inhabitants are engaged. More paper-mills are contained in it than in any other department in Bavaria. Circle of the Upper Danube.

Augsburg or the capital, although inferior to Munich, is the second town in the kingdom. Having already made some mention of its antiquity, it may now be more minutely described. It stands on a large and beautiful plain between the Lech and the Wertach, which join each other at its ramparts, and carry their united streams to the Danube. It is supposed that the number of inhabitants exceeds thirty-three thousand; as in other ancient towns, the streets are narrow and irregular; a few only are straight, and the *May* is without doubt the finest in Augsburg. The fountains which embellish it are supposed to render it more salubrious. The principal squares are those of the May, Caroline, and the new market place. Augsburg.

The townhouse is admitted to be the largest and most regularly built of any in Germany; the golden hall, a chamber in the same building, is a hundred feet in length, and nearly fifty in breadth. It was in the ancient episcopal palace, now changed into government offices, that the confession of Augsburg was read before Charles V. in 1530. The cathedral has been considered a finer building than any of the other twelve churches, six of which belong to the catholics and six to the lutherans. One church, however, that of St. Ulric, cannot be too highly commended for its bold and lofty arches; the lutherans and catholics perform their rites in it alternately. The church of the Franciscans is only remarkable for the size of its organ, the other public buildings are the arsenal, the market and the theatre. Buildings.

Augsburg is still the residence of a bishop, but he does not enjoy the same power as formerly; the diocese was once richer than any other in Christendom, and the bishops of Augsburg were entitled princes of the empire. Hartman bequeathed to the bishops, in the thirteenth century, his riches and the county of Wittislingen. It became afterwards more important, but was reduced at last like almost all the other chapters in Germany. Augsburg has its gymnasium, different seminaries, a polytechnic school, a public library, and a fine collection of paintings, the most of them are by German masters. The capital, belonging to hospitals and charitable institutions, was equal in 1807 to 6,600,000 florins. Bishops.

ustry. nmerce. | Although the manufactures of Augsburg were formerly in a more flourishing condition than at present, its trade is still ry great; indeed, its manufactures of every sort, and its many mer- ntile houses, render it a central point in commercial Europe.

uburg. | Neuburg on the Danube is peopled by seven thousand inhabitants, encompassed by walls, and commanded by a castle, built an eminence. The barracks, three churches, a lyceum and several spitals are the principal public buildings, but the most interesting onument is the tomb of La Tour d'Auvergne, who was killed in the year 00, on the road between Neuburg and Donawœrth, a small town of two ousand five hundred inhabitants, where Lewis the Severe ordered his fe Mary of Brabant to be beheaded, and which is famous for the victory ined over the French and Bavarians in 1703 by the Austrians, whom arlborough commanded. That bloody engagement took place near the llage of Blenheim, and about eighty years afterwards an immense quan- y of bones were dug by labourers, while they were employed in making road. Tallard had obtained the command of the French army by in- igue, Villars might perhaps have led it to victory; at all events its fate as avenged by the French both in 1796 and in 1800.

mmingen. | Memmingen, formerly an imperial town, is watered by the Ach; it contains eight thousand inhabitants. The townhouse, e arsenal and exchequer are the most remarkable buildings. It pos- sses a lyceum, a public library, a musical school and different semina- es. Heiss, Sichelbein and other artists were born in the town; its trade, nich is at present considerable, consists in hops, linen, serge and different nds of cloth.

mpten. | Kempten rivals the last town in industry and commerce. It is situated on the banks of the Iller, and surrounded with hills. was founded before the eighth century. Hildegarde, the wife of Char- magne, gave to the chapter of the town all the wealth which was left her her mother. The property of the convent, which still bears the name the empress, forms the greater part of Kempten, and the one in which ny hospitals, charity-schools and other benevolent institutions are uated.

lau. | Lindau, formerly a free and imperial town, rises on the lake of Constance. Its population amounted at one time to six usand inhabitants; it does not exceed at present three thousand five ndred. The harbour, or rather the Maximilian basin, may contain three ndred vessels. Because many of the houses are built on piles, the town been called Little Venice. The ancient castle, which commands it, for a long time inhabited by monks.

of the | The different circles that have been described are governed by commissioners, and the police are subject to the authority other commissioners. Each circle is also subdivided into different ts or justices, as they are called in the country, and all of them have r chief towns. As several of these courts are more or less dependent rivileged nobles, they are sometimes styled mediate or seigneurial ts; their decisions may be revoked by the supreme tribunal at Munich.

of the | The Rhenish possessions of Bavaria make up the circle of the Rhine; it is mostly formed by the ancient French depart- t of Mont-Tonnerre, and by some districts in the former departments e Sarre and the Lower Rhine. It may be equal in superficial extent hundred and forty German, or to nearly one thousand six hundred and ty English square miles. The country is bounded on the north and rest by the Prussian provinces on the Rhine, by some districts be- ng to the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and by the Landgraviate of e-Homburg, on the south by France, and on the east by the great ies of Baden and Hesse.

The northern extremity of the Vosges occupies a great part of the surface. Hassel calculated the summit of Wandelstein to be 2000 feet above the level of the sea, but it is much lower than Donnersberg, or Mont-Tonnerre. The mountainous districts are composed of red sandstone and other rocks of the second formation. A long belt of ancient calcareous rocks extends from north to south along the plains and districts on the Rhine, which forms the natural boundary of the country. The same belt serves as a support for more recent deposites, or lands of the third formation, through which the river flows. Almost all the mountains in the circle are well wooded, but the southern declivities, or the heights connected with the principal chain, are covered with vineyards. The largest forest, or the Bien, may be about fifteen miles in length, and nearly two in breadth. The extent of the Harth is more than thirty thousand acres. The rivers that water the country, flow either towards the north or the east, and enter the Rhine, or towards the south, and unite with the Sarre. The climate is wholesome, but colder on the mountains and western declivities, than on the eastern sides, or the plains which extend along the Rhine. | Soil.

The country abounds in clay, well adapted for bricks and coarse earthenware, in marble, coal, rock-salt, and different metals; it yields annually thirty-three thousand hundred weight of iron, eighty-five thousand of coal, and six hundred and seventy-two of mercury. | Mineral productions.

The heights were inhabited during the time of Cæsar by the *Nemetes*, and their lands extended to the Rhine. The *Mediomatrici* occupied the western declivities; but as they possessed, besides, all the territory which now forms the department of the Mozelle, they shall be mentioned more fully in the account of France. Little is known concerning the Nemetes; it is certain, however, that before the war, carried on by the Romans, against Ariovistus, they settled on the left bank of the Rhine, which they compelled the Mediomatrici to abandon; they inhabited before that period the right bank of the same river. Tacitus does not consider them Gauls; without doubt, says the historian, the Vangiones, Tribocci, and Nemetes are of German origin.[a] It appears from the same author, that they served as auxiliaries in the Roman armies.[b] | Ancient inhabitants.

The circle of the Rhine is not governed in the same manner as the other Bavarian provinces; some modifications have been made in the system, which was established by France under the imperial government. It is divided into four departments, which are subdivided into thirty-two districts. Speyer, or Spires, the capital, is watered by a small river of the same name, at a short distance from the Rhine. It is well walled, and five gates form the entrances to the town. The principal edifices are, the townhouse and the cathedral, which contains the ashes of eight emperors and as many empresses; the monuments erected to their memory are now in ruins. It possesses fifteen catholic and two protestant churches; yet out of its six thousand four hundred inhabitants, there are not more than sixteen hundred catholics. Some authors believe it to have been founded before the christian era.[c] The same writers suppose that Spira and Nimidoa were its ancient names, and that it was the chief city of the Nemetes, (*civitas Nemetum.*) It cannot be denied that it was a Germanic town at the commencement of the middle ages, and there is reason to believe that it was the metropolis of a diocese in the year 348. But it had been destroyed or had fallen into decay before the reign of Dagobert the First, since that prince ordered it to be rebuilt, and made it over to his chaplain. If the streets and buildings do not appear to be ancient, it must be recollected that it was destroyed by the French during the war in the Palatinate. | Spires.

[a] De Moribus Germanorum, XXVIII. [b] Annals Book XII. sect. 26.
[c] Corneille, Dictionnaire Geographique.—Dumont Voyage sur les bords du Rhin.

Other towns. The other towns in the circle are not very important. Frankenthal, the name of which serves to recall the ancient kingdom of Franconia, contains only four thousand inhabitants; but it possesses a greater trade than any other town in the province. Grunstadt, situated in a fruitful district, and watered by the Liss, was the birth-place of Olbein, the celebrated painter. Kaiserslautern, which contains a gymnasium, a normal school, and four thousand six hundred inhabitants, is memorable from the battles fought by the French and Prussians in 1793 and 1794. Pirmassenz, the scene of a destructive combat, is well built; troops are stationed in its castle, and the population amounts to five thousand individuals. Deux-Ponts or Zwey-Brücken, which contains six thousand inhabitants, is agreeably situated on the Erlbach; the streets are clean, straight, and well paved. It is adorned by a fine castle; but the one that belonged to the ancient dukes of Deux-Ponts, was wholly destroyed.

Landau on the Queich. Landau, on the Queich, a town fortified by Vauban, although reserved at present for the confederation, is the station of a Bavarian garrison. The fortifications form a regular octagon; two gates only, lead to the town, and the population is the same as that of Deux-Ponts. The streets are regular, the barracks, powder-magazines, and storehouses are bomb-proof. Germersheim, situated also on the Queich, and not far from the Rhine, may be mentioned on account of its old fortress, where the emperor Rodolphus of Habsburg died, and also on account of a gold washing, which has been established in the neighbourhood, on the banks of the river. Several burghs and villages of some importance from their population, shall be enumerated in the tables at the end of the chapter. The trade of the circle is not without activity, but it might be much improved if the canals of Frankenthal and Deux-Ponts, which have been neglected by government, were finished and kept in good repair.

It was thought unnecessary to enter into minute details concerning the places of education, and scientific institutions in the different towns; it may be remarked, however, that the diffusion of knowledge has been more promoted by the Bavarian than by the former French government. The population of all the towns in the circle, and in the other Bavarian provinces, has not been stated, but the reader may be referred to the following tables, in which will be found the most important facts relative to the statistics of the kingdom.

STATISTICAL TABLES

Of the Kingdom of Bavaria and the Bavarian possessions on the Rhine, according to the latest authorities.

The population of Bavaria proper and the Rhenish province amounted in 1827 to 3,940,000 individuals, or an average of 2,628 for every German, or 220 for every English square mile.

Number of families	875,560
Noble families	1,384
——— having seigneurial possessions	878
——— without landed property	506

	Number of Seigneurial Possessions. d	Number of Families for every German Square Mile.
Circle of the Isar	227	377
——— the Lower Danube	153	499
——— the Regen	179	444
——— the Upper Maine	100	566
——— the Rezat	64	781
——— the Lower Maine	77	622
——— the Upper Danube	78	610
——— the Rhine	0	809

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Origin.

Germans	3,880,000
Jews	56,500
French	3,500

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	2,710,000
Lutherans	1,100,000
Reformists or Calvinists	78,000
Mennonites and other Dissenters	1,000
Jews	56,000

Distribution of the Population.

Inhabitants in the towns of the first and second class	563,000
——— in the small towns and in the country	3,377,000

Towns, &c. according to Hassel.

Number of towns	229
——— burghs	399
——— villages and parishes	2,920
——— small villages and hamlets	28,449
——— taxed houses, about	652,000[e]

Mortality in different parts of the Kingdom.

At Nuremberg	1 in 40
At Augsburg	1 in 35
In the Circle of the Isar	1 in 29
In the Circle of the Upper Maine	1 in 38

Mean number of Capital Punishments.

The proportion in all the Bavarian possessions is as one to twenty thousand individuals.

[d] The population of a Circle is more or less considerable, according to the number of its seigneurial possessions; unless, indeed, the natural effect of such properties be counterbalanced by particular circumstances, as in the Circle of the Isar, the only exception to the rule. The population in the Circle of the Rhine is greater than in any other, and in that Circle there are no privileged proprietors.

[e] Of these houses, 484,000, and 447,000 buildings connected with them, were insured against fire in 1824, for the sum of 385,739,235 florins.

Occupations of the Jews.

Out of 10,663 Jewish families, those engaged in commerce amount to	10,242
In different trades	169
In agriculture	252

Number of Towns, &c. according to the Surface.

Number of towns in every $6\frac{1}{2}$ German square miles	1
——— burghs in every $3\frac{3}{8}$ German square miles	1
——— villages in every German square mile	2
——— hamlets, Idem	9
——— houses, Idem	435

Churches.

Catholic churches	2,773
Lutheran churches	1,036
Reformed churches	138

Places of Education.

Universities	3
Lyceums	7
Gymnasia	18
Colleges	21
Preparatory schools	35
Houses of education	16
Others for higher branches of education	7
Boarding schools for girls	2
Normal schools	7
School for foreigners	1
Schools of law	2
Veterinary schools	2
Schools of midwifery	2
Royal schools	2
Public schools	5,394

Teachers and Pupils.

Number of those whose office it is to examine and inspect the schools	286
Teachers	7,114
Pupils of all classes, about	498,000

Fiefs dependent on the Crown.

Principalities	11
Counties	13

Division of the Circles in hundred parts of their surface, made in 1826.

	Cultivated Lands.	Forests.	Waste Lands
Circle of the Isar	35	31	34
——— Lower Danube	50	29	21
——— Regen	47	30	23
——— Upper Maine	60	29	11
——— Rezet	70	22	8

	Cultivated Lands.	Forests.	Waste Lands.
Circle of the Lower Maine	58	32	10
——— Upper Danube	50	25	25
——— Rhine	57	36	7

Division of the Forests in Acres.

	Forests belonging to the state.	To towns, burghs, villages and foundations.	To individuals.	Total number of acres.
Circle of the Isar	521,560	101,096	813,553	1,436,209
——— Lower Danube	173,533	783	481,253	655,569
——— Regen	258,010	126,661	411,733	796,404
——— Upper Maine	416,545	100,342	197,529	714,416
——— Rezat	225,386	151,243	165,067	541,696
——— Lower Maine	233,611	337,524	190,576	761,701
——— Upper Danube	217,627	160,699	374,849	753,175
——— Rhine	366,067	268,550	70,089	704,706
	2,412,329	1,246,898	2,704,649	6,363,876

Details relative to each Circle, taken from Hassel's Tables for 1822.

A. CIRCLE OF THE ISAR,

DIVIDED INTO 27 COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German square miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German square mile.
310	500,600	109,046	1611
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages.	Hamlets.
15	41	3,271	7,985

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	477,300
Lutherans	20,500
Jews	2,800

Places of Education.

University	1
Lyceum	1
Normal School	1
Seminaries	2
Boarding Schools for girls	2

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Trauenstein	3,330
Landsberg	2,739
Laufen	2,539
Reichenhall	2,395
Rosenheim	2,240
Wasserburg	2,100

B. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER DANUBE,

DIVIDED INTO 19 COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
197	355,200	77,157	1800
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages.	Hamlets.
12	46	2,048	7,028

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	349,500
Lutherans	1,600
Jews	4,100

Places of Education.

Gymnasia	2
Different seminaries	28

Population of the Towns that have not been described.

Deggendorf	2,557
Burghausen	2,042

C. CIRCLE OF THE REGEN,

DIVIDED INTO 20 COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
194	364,800	79,422	1874
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
28	66	3,160	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	320,600
Lutherans	37,000
Jews	7,200

Places of Education.

Lyceums	2
Gymnasia	2
Colleges	3
Royal School	1
Preparatory Schools	8
Normal School	1
Different Schools	33

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Neumarkt	4,075
Sulsbach	3,690
Kelheim	2,509

D. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER MAINE,

DIVIDED INTO 34 COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
186	475,100	103,488	2,548

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.
37	72	2,271

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	228,800
Lutherans	201,300
Calvinists or Reformists	200
Jews	8,000

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasia	3
Colleges	3
Preparatory Latin Schools	7
Normal Schools	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Krouach	3,885
Wunsiadel	3,845
Forcheim	3,535
Selb	2,730
Munchberg	2,700
Lichtensfels	2,620
Weiden	2,600

E. CIRCLE OF THE REZAT,

DIVIDED INTO 29 COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
143	530,800	115,409	3,702

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.
42	55	2,004

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	109,700
Lutherans	410,000
Reformists	100
Jews	11,000

Places of Education.

University	1
Gymnasia	2
Colleges	2

Preparatory Latin Schools	2
Different Seminaries	12
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Weissenburg	5,005
Windsheim	3,565
Roth	3,185
Lauf	3,160
Œttingen	3,065
Altdorf	3,060
Neustadt on the Aisch	3,040
Feuchtwang	2,855
Gunzenhausen	2,565
Hersbrück	2,520
Iphofen	2,482
Wemding	2,330
Wassertrudingen	2,250
Uffenheim	2,100
Herrogenaurach	2,000
Pappenheim	2,000

F. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER MAINE,

DIVIDED INTO FORTY-SEVEN COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
155	491,100	105,733	3,154

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and hamlets.
44	55	1188

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	407,300
Lutherans	75,000
Jews	8,800

Places of Education.

University	1
Lyceum	1
Gymnasia	3
Colleges	3
Preparatory Schools	6
School for Foreigners	1
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Lohr	3,780
Orb	3,549
Amorbach	3,375
Heidingsfeld	2,995
Miltenberg	2,880
Ochsenfürt	2,468
Hassfurt	2,439

Gerolzhofen	2,380
Melbrichstadt	2,290
Neustadt on the Saale	2,221
Arustein	2,135
Dettelbach	2,132

G. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER DANUBE,

DIVIDED INTO THIRTY-TWO COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German square Mile.
171	510,100	111,126	2970

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.
23	47	1778

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	483,300
Lutherans	25,800
Reformists	900
Jews	2,100

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasia	4
Seminaries	2
Ecclesiastical Seminary	1
Preparatory Latin Schools	7

Population of the principal Towns that have not been described.

Neuburg	6,900
Lauingen	5,460
Kaufbeuern	4,705
Günzburg	3,805
Gundelfingen	3,675
Dillingen	3,610
Hoechstedt	3,150
Burgau	2,285
Friedberg	2,144
Mindelheim	2,115
Fussen	2,000

H. CIRCLE OF THE RHINE,

DIVIDED INTO TWELVE DEPARTMENTS AND THIRTY-ONE DISTRICTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
140	403,100[f]	87,815	2878

Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.
28	16	665

[f] According to M. Kolb: Neu. Geog. Ephemer. Weimar, 1825. The population of the circle amounts to 448,917 inhabitants, and 89,000 families.

In general, to ascertain the population of Bavaria in 1827, it is necessary to add a twelfth to the numbers given by Hassel for 1822, a rule which has been followed in the detailed account of each circle.

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	120,000
Lutherans	207,690
Reformists	60,000
Mennonites	710
Jews	6,700

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasia	2
Colleges	5
Preparatory Latin Schools	5
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described, and of some large Burghs and Villages.

Neustadt on the Hardt	4,805
Dürkeim (Id.)	3,790
Diedesheim	3,015
Kirchheim-Poland	2,510
Bergzabern	2,324
Wachenheim	2,200
Annweiler	2,196
Homburg	2,157
Otterberg	2,000

Burghs and Villages.

Edenkoben	4,025
Hassloch	3,560
Kandel	3,097
Herxheim	2,868
Mutterstadt	2,140
Kalsburg	2,100
Leimersheim	2,029

BUDGET

OF THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA IN 1825, ACCORDING TO THE ACCOUNTS PRESENTED TO THE CHAMBERS.

Revenue.

Direct taxes	8,900,000 florins.
Indirect taxes	9,100,000
Revenue from the royal fiefs, &c.	5,160,000
Regal rights	3,950,000
Receipts in arrear	1,590,000
Different receipts	2,600,000
	31,300,000

Expenditure.

Sinking fund	8,354,000 florins.

Charges of the household and court - -	2,745,000 florins.
——— chambers - - -	- 52,600
Administration of the household and foreign affairs	570,000
——— justice - - - -	1,732,000
——— the interior - - -	1,300,664
——— finances - - -	1,011,600
Public instruction - - - -	735,148
Clergy - - - - - -	1,251,172
Hospitals - - - - -	118,851
Roads and bridges - - - -	1,360,000
Army - - - - - -	7,880,000
	27,051,535
Royal establishments - - -	4,195,936
	31,247,471

National Debt.

In 1820 it amounted to - - -	110,876,084 florins.
In 1824 to - - - -	110,781,740
Reduction in four years - - -	- 94,344

BOOK CXXIV.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Eighth Section.—Territories and Free Towns of Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck, and Frankfort on the Maine.

An account shall be given in the present chapter, of the territories and towns that have continued free, notwithstanding all the changes introduced into the political divisions of Germany, by the ambition of conquerors, and the intrigues of cabinets. Before we cross the mountains, which separate Bavaria from Bohemia, before we describe the provinces of the Austrian empire, it is necessary to examine the remains of that federative power, which possessed for several centuries, so much influence in the affairs of Germany.

Hanseatic towns.

Industry and commerce are so favourable to civilization by the wealth they diffuse, by the spirit of independence they produce, that wherever they exist, wherever they flourish, freedom triumphs sooner or later over every obstacle. In the middle ages, the principal towns in Germany, subject to the empire, were governed by bishops, dukes and counts, who endeavoured and too often succeeded in destroying their independence. Worms and Cologne proved their attachment to the emperor Henry the fourth, by embracing his cause against the authority of their bishops.[a] Their conduct determined the crown to increase the number of freemen by granting to the working classes in these cities, a right, which at the time was considered a privilege. The bishops and lords, the temporal governors of Worms and Cologne, inherited the moveable property of the lower orders, or at least as much of it as they

[a] Schmidt, tome III. page 239.

pleased; that custom was then abolished. Other towns obtained at a later period the same advantages; not long afterwards, they purchased the right of choosing their own magistrates, and also of sending deputies to support their interests in the Germanic diets.[b]

These immunities or privileges, which distinguish the imperial towns from other cities, were at first only conferred on the persons who inhabited within their walls. But the peasants, being naturally anxious for some security against the oppression of their lords, bought the right of settling under the walls, between the ditches and palisades; they were therefore called *phal burger* or burgesses of the palisades; and their houses, crowded round the walls, were in course of time denominated suburbs.[c]

The towns extended gradually the limits of their jurisdiction to a considerable distance from their ramparts. As many as settled in their territory, enjoyed the privileges of citizens, under the name of *Aus Burger*, or outer burgesses; hence the origin of free towns, possessing territories equally free, and forming small independent states. So many advantages made the nobles more jealous of the imperial cities. If it be difficult to obtain freedom, it is still more so to preserve it. Although the towns rivalled each other in commerce and industry, they found it necessary to unite and to form a sort of federative state, that they might be better able to resist the power of the bishops and lords, who denied their rights to be valid, because they had been acquired by purchase. Compelled by the usurpations and oppressive authority of the independent nobles in Germany, more than sixty towns formed a confederation on the Rhine in the year 1255.

Origin of the Hanseatic league.

The origin of the Hanseatic league may be attributed to similar causes, although its object was to protect the commerce of some imperial towns. The old German word *hanse*, which signifies an alliance, did not indicate merely the intention of facilitating commercial transactions between the different inhabitants, but of resisting princes on the coast of the Baltic, and maintaining a free navigation on that sea. The league dates from the year 1164, and Bremen was the first town that planned and executed the project. The wealth acquired by the alliance was so great, that many trading towns in different countries entered into the league; among the number, might be mentioned Antwerp, Amsterdam, and several other ports in Holland, Calais, Rouen, Bordeaux and other towns in France, lastly, Cadiz, Lisbon, Naples and London. So gigantic a confederation was gradually reduced to a few maritime towns on the Baltic. The Hanseatic union, founded for commercial purposes, became a great naval power; it had its fleets and armies, which were formidable to the kings of Denmark. It blockaded Copenhagen in the fourteenth century, and forced Waldemar the Third, to give up the province of Schonen to the confederation. Forty vessels, manned with good seamen and twelve hundred soldiers, sailed on an expedition against Eric, king of Denmark, in 1428. The league assisted Brunswick in 1615, at that time invested by its duke, who was compelled to raise the siege.[d] The great master of the Teutonic order, Sweden and Denmark, had been all at different times, protectors of the league; but it lost at last its energy and its power; the causes, which had led to its formation, ceased gradually to exist; its commerce still remained, but its armies were useless. The number of Hanseatic towns at the commencement of the eighteenth century, was reduced to six. Bremen, Lubeck, Hamburg, Rostock, Danzig and Cologne retained an empty title,—they had no alliance to maintain; at present, Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck are not even considered free towns, possessing separate governments.

Bremen.

[b] Schmidt, tome VI. page 31. [c] See Schmidt, tome IV and VI. Pfeffel, page 402. Dueange, Glossary. [d] Heiss, History of the empire, book VI.

As the assemblies of the ancient Hanseatic league were held in Bremen, it ought perhaps on that account to be first described. It is situated on the banks of the Weser and the Wumme, at thirty leagues from the sea. | Bremen.

It must have been a place of some importance about the end of the eighth century, when Charlemagne made it the capital of an archiepiscopal see; it contains at present five thousand three hundred and sixty houses, and thirty-eight thousand inhabitants, more than two-thirds of whom are reformists or calvinists. The cathedral is reserved for those who adhere to the Augsburg confession, and the calvinists have four parish churches. The principal seminary is a gymnasium for the children of lutherans and calvinists; there are besides other schools, a library and a museum of natural history. The public buildings are, the observatory of Dr. Olbert, who was born in the town, the treasury, the chamber of commerce, and the townhouse, an edifice remarkable not only for its curious architecture, but also for its cellars, in which are contained an immense quantity of the finest Rhenish wines. Bremen is divided into the old and new town; the first is gloomy and ill built; some regular streets and modern houses are situated in the other on the left bank of the Weser; the ancient fortifications are now changed into public walks.

The manufactures are linen, camlet, cloth, hats, worsted stockings, tobacco, oil and glass. The art of refining sugar is well understood, and the beer is supposed to be better than any other in Germany. But the wealth of Bremen depends not so much on its manufactures as on its commerce. The many advantages of its situation render it the mart of all the merchandise that descends the Weser; indeed it was considered after Hamburg, the most important acquisition, which the French made under the imperial government; it then became the capital of a department,—the mouths of the Weser. It carries on a great trade in fish, such as herring, salmon and whales: eleven of its vessels were sent to the herring fisheries in 1817. The linens and cottons prepared every year in its bleachfields, are purchased in different parts of Germany, and they are supposed to be equal in value to five millions of rixdollars; it receives other articles, and gives in exchange French and Spanish wines, and different kinds of colonial produce. The number of vessels that enter its harbour every year, exceeds a thousand. Banks and maritime insurance offices have been established to protect and encourage its commerce; its revenues may amount to four hundred thousand florins. | Manufactures.

The territory belonging to it contains ten thousand inhabitants, and the extent of surface is little more than fifty English square miles; in that small space are situated the burgh of Vegesack, and thirty-five villages or hamlets. The same burgh and Elfsleth in the dutchy of Oldenburgh form the harbour of Bremen. But as large vessels cannot enter these small ports, which are at some leagues from the sea, all the goods are conveyed to the town in boats. | Territory.

Bremen is governed by an assembly, composed of four mayors, two syndics and twenty-four counsellors, seventeen of whom are lawyers, and the remaining seven, merchants. Calvinists only are admitted into the council, indeed the exclusive system has been carried so far, that Lutherans cannot hold civil employments.* Thus, although the magistrates may be upright men, the laws are oppressive, and many inhabitants are deprived of what may be considered their just rights. The government of the town and territory is vested in the council; and the revenue is committed to its management; it presides over the administration of justice, and whenever matters of importance render it necessary, | Government.

* Stein's Geography.

calls together the leading and influential citizens, who, although they meet at no stated periods, form a sort of legislative assembly.

Military force. It may be remarked in proof of the patriotism which prevails in this small republic, that all the citizens capable of bearing arms are divided into different classes. The men from twenty-six to thirty-five years of age form three battalions. The officers of government are only exempted, if their duties are incompatible with the military service. Men from twenty to twenty-five years of age, make up another battalion, the only one which is equipped at the expense of the state. The town has no other troops than this sort of national guard; it is, however, obliged to furnish four hundred and eighty-five men to the Germanic confederation.

Hamburg. Hamburg was considered one of the most commercial towns in Europe, when it was united to the French empire in 1810, and made the capital of a French department—the mouths of the Elbe. It contained at that time a population of a hundred and seven thousand inhabitants. The lands in the neighbourhood, covered with country houses, plantations and cultivated fields, might have been compared to an extensive and magnificent garden, which the course of the Elbe, and many picturesque views, served to adorn. When France had to resist a powerful league in 1813, Hamburg, which owed its wealth and resources to its commerce, was suddenly changed into an imposing and fortified town. So great was the extent of the military works, that the lofty trees which shaded the public walks, the country houses that proclaimed the wealth of the inhabitants, as well as the humble cottage of the peasant,—gardens, hedges and inclosures, all were destroyed to a considerable distance from the walls. A great part of the suburbs was levelled with the ground, and the losses which the inhabitants then sustained, were estimated, according to a very moderate calculation, at 3,000,000*l.* But the various articles which were not taken into account, the merchandise that was spoiled, the ships that were damaged, the buildings that were destroyed, made the whole equal to 4,000,000*l.* The wants of the French army obliged the general who commanded it, to dispose of more than 7,500,000 marks taken from the funds of the Hamburg bank. By a treaty concluded in 1816, the French government agreed to pay Hamburg the sum of 500,000*l.* Peace, by affording encouragement to commerce, has restored the city to its ancient prosperity,—at the time when it was distinguished from its rivals, when vessels from every nation entered its harbour. It did not contain more than sixty thousand individuals in 1814, the number of inhabitants at present exceeds a hundred and ten thousand.

Catholics. The catholics amount to two thousand, the reformists or calvinists to four thousand, the Mennonites to five hundred, and the Jews to six thousand, the other inhabitants adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Buildings. Although the town, in proportion to its size, may be considered one of the most wealthy in Europe, the public buildings are very ordinary; two, however, are finer than the rest,—the treasury and the church of St. Michael, the tower of which rises four hundred feet above the ground; but even these edifices are merely remarkable on account of their positions in the neighbourhood of narrow and dirty streets, brick houses, and buildings which recall the period of Charlemagne, who is believed to have been the founder of Hamburg. The *Binex-Alster*, or the only public walk within the town, is formed by a range of trees, planted near a large sheet of water. Dense crowds frequent the public walk in the summer evenings; and the number of vessels that cover the basin, give it the appearance of a floating city. After London and Amsterdam, Hamburg is the most commercial town in Europe; the inhabitants are affluent; numerous equipages are seen on its streets; the utmost activity prevails in the harbour from the morning until two o'clock in the after-

noon, and at that hour merchants of every description repair to the exchange. The interior of the houses corresponds with the wealth of the inhabitants, which is displayed in the ornaments of dress, and in the luxury and magnificence of the table. In Hamburg little deference is paid to rank or antiquity of family; a man is estimated by the importance and extent of his mercantile transactions. The spirit of commerce seems to pervade every individual; in the theatre and in the drawing room, in balls and every other place of amusement, trade, the course of exchange, and mercantile speculations, are the subject of conversation. Thus, there are few cities where the arts are so little cultivated or so little appreciated; in the account of the most insignificant towns in Germany, mention has been made of scientific institutions, museums, and libraries, but if strangers look for similar collections at all worthy of such a place as Hamburg, they will be disappointed. The books in the public library are not valuable or numerous; the museum of natural history belonging to the patriotic society contains nothing in any way remarkable, and it might be difficult to enumerate more than a very few individuals who devote part of their time to literature or science.

Places of Education.

The same remarks are less applicable to the places of education; their number is perhaps sufficient for the wants, certainly for the tastes and pursuits of the inhabitants. The principal schools are, a gymnasium, a commercial seminary, a drawing and naval academy; in addition to these might be mentioned a pharmaceutical seminary and different gratuitous schools.

Mendicants.

Although no mendicants are seen on the streets, it is not less certain that there are twelve thousand paupers in the town; so great a number need hardly excite surprise, if it be recollected that even the necessaries of life are much dearer than in other parts of Germany. The expenses of the work-houses and hospitals are defrayed by the town. Asylums have been erected for lunatics, infirmaries for the sick, nay, funds are set apart for the cure of different diseases, such as asphyxia, epidemics, and contagious fevers. Of late years not only merchandise, houses, and other kinds of property, but lives are insured. The life insurance company had in its coffers some years ago, 1,200,000 marks banco, or 200,000*l.*, to enable it to fulfil the engagements with the heirs of the insured, to pay the capitals or incomes stipulated in their contracts.

Inhabitants.

The people in Hamburg are divided into three distinct classes, the *real burgesses*, the *petty burgesses*, and foreign inhabitants.[1] The real burgesses enjoy all the rights of citizens; they only are eligible to the different offices in the state, they are permitted the free exercise of every sort of industry, and are even exempt from paying duty on different goods that arrive in Hamburg vessels. The petty burgesses can only exercise certain trades, and they pay a yearly tax of one thaler for the protection which is granted to them. The foreign inhabitants are also liable to an annual contribution, but as soon as they are admitted, they must pay fifty thalers, if they engage in commerce, and forty, if they are artisans. Strangers cannot acquire property either within the town or territory of Hamburg, unless it be in the name of a burgess.

Jews, rights of citizens.

The Jews do not enjoy the rights of citizens, but they may possess houses in certain parts of the town. Although the rights of citizens are not hereditary, the sons of real burgesses are entitled to some privileges, and they do not pay so great a sum as others for their admission. It was not before the year 1814, that the Christians who did not embrace the Augsburg confession, were allowed to become burgesses, or to hold offices in the state; they are still excluded from the council.

[1] See Stein's Geography,

Government. The form of government is, as Stein calls it, *Aristo-democratic*, the sovereignty is vested in the council and in the burgesses; the former consists of thirty-six members, amongst them are included three mayors and eleven magistrates. The citizens are represented by deputies legally elected, and by hereditary burgesses. The last are the most wealthy and influential of the inhabitants.

Military force. Although Hamburg is a fortified town, the military establishment is not great; the contingent to the confederation has been limited to thirteen hundred men, and a numerous national guard serves to defend the town and territory. Magistrates, clergymen, schoolmasters, physicians and surgeons are exempt from the military service, these are the only exceptions, all the other men in Hamburg, from the age of twenty to forty-six must enter the national guard.

Revenue. The revenues collected in the town and territory, vary from twelve to fifteen millions of florins. Of all the imposts established by the French government, the stamps and excise are only continued; these indirect contributions, though very moderate, yield on an average a monthly revenue of sixty thousand marks; government may thus, without burdening the people, pay the interest of a national debt, which amounted in 1810, to fifty-two millions of marks.

Industry. Many branches of industry are carried on in Hamburg; there were a few years ago forty sugar works, ten print fields, which furnished employment to fifteen hundred workmen, twenty-five wire-mills, many leather and soap works, a hundred velvet and silk looms, and several manufactories of gold and silver lace, as well as of fine and coarse linen. The dried meat, known by the name of Hamburg beef, which forms a great article of exportation, is cured within its walls. More than twenty copper and brass foundries are situated in its territory. But the produce of its manufacturing industry, however great, becomes insignificant, when compared with its foreign trade.

Foreign trade. It possesses more than two hundred ships, which carry its merchandise to the ports of neighbouring nations, and even to Portugal. It often sends considerable fleets to the whale fisheries; and the number of vessels that enter or leave its harbour every year, amounts to more than twelve hundred. It carries on a very great trade in colonial produce; the reader may form some notion of its importance from the documents contained in the table at the end of this chapter. It is one of the greatest marts for tea and coffee of any town in Europe; the inhabitants themselves consume an immense quantity; it has been ascertained to exceed 10,000,000 pounds, so that the proportion for every individual, amounts to more than ninety pounds; it may be easily supposed, what is really the case, that the people take tea or coffee almost every hour in the day.

Port. The town has been better fortified on the side of the land, than towards the sea. A basin formed by a branch of the Elbe, serves as a place of anchorage for fresh water boats, and a road twenty feet in depth for larger vessels; the goods and merchandise are thus transported into the different store-houses, along the canals, which traverse the old town. Although a dike has been built along the river, Hamburg has been more than once inundated; in the year 1771, the waters broke through their barrier, and covered a great part of the neighbourhood, and almost all the town; in 1790, the waters of the Elbe rose more than twenty feet in the course of a single night.

Territory. Hamburg and its territory form a surface of a hundred and two square miles; in the territory are situated a small town, two burghs, thirteen villages, and fifty hamlets, their population may be equal to 20,000 souls.

Lubeck. The territory of Lubeck is inclosed by the dutchy of Oldenburg; it contains two towns, and seventy-nine villages and ham-

lets. The extent of surface does not exceed ninety square miles, and the population amounts to forty-three thousand individuals, but of that number twenty-six thousand are the inhabitants of Lubeck, or the capital. It is situated at the confluence of three rivers, the Trave, the Wackenitz, and the Stecknitz, which, at the distance of three leagues, throw themselves into a gulf, that bears the name of the town.

Few cities are more advantageously situated than Lubeck, for the Baltic trade. Built in the twelfth century by the emperor Conrad the Third, or as others affirm, by Godeschale king of the Herules or Obotriti, in the year 1066, it became, a century afterwards, the seat of a diocese, which, before that time, had been established at Oldenburg. It was several times destroyed by the Danes, and as often rebuilt by its inhabitants. Devastated by the assaults to which it was exposed from barbarous neighbours, it put itself, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, under the protection of Frederick the Second, who declared it a free and imperial city. It entered at a later period into the number of Hanseatic towns, and maintained for a long time, considerable influence in the affairs of the league. But in 1810, it was united to the French empire, and became the metropolis of a division in the mouths of the Elbe; its privileges as a free town were restored three years afterwards.

Government.

The government is vested in a supreme council, composed of four mayors and sixteen counsellors; they are chosen from the most influential inhabitants. The spirit of independence, the result of commerce, may perhaps have prompted the people to embrace the Augsburg confession, at the commencement of the reformation; but it is rather commercial rivalry, than concern about religion, which has contributed to the persecution of the Jews in Lubeck, and the same intolerance, far from being diminished by the advances made in knowledge, appears to have gained ground in later times. According to a decree of the senate, in 1816, all those who professed judaism, were obliged to quit the town within a very short period; they had the choice of settling in the village of Moisling, about two leagues distant, or of leaving the territory.

The Town.

Lubeck is encompassed with ramparts; the streets, though steep, are straight, clean and well built. The edifices most worthy of notice are, the cathedral, which contains several articles of antiquity, the church of St. Mary, the townhouse, in which may be seen the celebrated Hanseatic hall, the council room, adorned with fine paintings, and the hall of the treasury; the arsenal and the exchange are nowise remarkable.

Useful institutions, places of education, &c.

Many useful institutions have been founded in the town; the most important are several elementary schools, a gymnasium, different boarding houses, two commercial seminaries, a school of surgery, a drawing academy for artisans, and another for the higher classes. Societies have been established for the suppression of mendicity, and the relief of the indigent; there are besides, a house of correction, and an orphan hospital.

Revenues.

The revenues of the state were estimated a few years ago, at more than a million of florins, and half that sum, at least, was derived from the town. A tax which still subsists, was imposed on every citizen in 1816, to form a fund for the extinction of the public debt.

Military force.

The military force consists of a national guard divided into fifteen companies, and a contingent of six hundred men to the Germanic confederation.

Manufactures.

The manufactures and different articles made at Lubeck, are, tobacco, sugar, leather, soap, and silk, cotton stuffs, coarse and fine linen, cloth, gold and silver lace, iron and copper wire, and lastly, sail cloth and merchant vessels. The commerce consists principally in colonial produce, in exportations of grain, and importations of different products from Sweden, Russia, France, Holland, and England.

Travemunde. | Large vessels arrive at Travemunde, a small fortified town, situated at the mouth of the Trave, on the Baltic sea. It carries on a great trade with Lubeck, and many strangers frequent it on account of its baths. Its watch-tower commands an extensive view, which reaches on one side to a great distance along the sea, and on the other, beyond the territory of Lubeck.

Frankfort on the Maine. | Ancient Hanseatic towns, such as Bremen, Hamburg, and Lubeck, seemed to have acquired the right of claiming their independence, at the time when the political divisions of Germany were determined by congress. As their independence was lost, merely because they had been incorporated in the French empire, it was thought equitable by the European diplomatists, that they should be restored to their ancient privileges after the fall of the conquerer. Besides, their situation at the extremity of Germany was likely to remove the fear of other states imitating their example. But Frankfort is different from the rest, and more interesting than any of them, inasmuch as it forms a small republic, almost in the centre of the Germanic confederation. It became independent at a time, when rulers sanctioned reluctantly any institutions in which liberty was admitted as a right, and not as a concession, revocable according to circumstances. It is true that Frankfort dates its freedom from as remote a period as the other towns that have been last described, but it was not considered a conquest of Napoleon, it was not united to France, on the contrary, it had continued since 1806, the capital of a great dutchy, governed by a sovereign primate. It was declared a free town in 1815. It might have become the most valuable possession of a state in the confederation, had it not excited the covetousness of neighbouring principalities, such as Nassau, Hesse-Darmstadt, and electoral Hesse, in the midst of which its territory is inclosed. It was for these reasons, not from any consideration of equity or justice, that it gained an independence, to which its present commercial importance must be principally ascribed.

Territory of Frankfort. | The extent of the territory may be equal to five German or sixty English square miles; it contains, besides the capital, two burghs and five villages. According to the mean term of the different numbers, assigned by German geographers, the population cannot be estimated at less than sixty thousand.[a] The town alone contains more than forty-five thousand inhabitants; the catholics amount to five or six thousand, the reformists, or calvinists, to two thousand, the Jews to five thousand, the rest adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Monuments. | Frankfort, notwithstanding its monuments, palaces, and well-built houses, is not considered a fine town. The streets are, for the most part, gloomy, narrow, and crooked. The cathedral, or the church of St. Bartholomew, a curious and ancient edifice, in which several emperors have been crowned, is supposed to have been built by Pepin, or perhaps by Lewis the Pious, king of Germany, who died at Frankfort, in the year 876. The golden bull of the emperor Charles the Fourth, is preserved in the Rœmer or townhouse; it is written on forty-three pages of old parchment, and was exhibited for a long time among the curiosities of Paris. The other buildings are the *Saalhoff*, or the palace of Lewis the Debonnaire, which has been disfigured by modern additions, the palace of the Teutonic order, and the one that belonged to the prince of La Tour and Taxis; besides these, may be mentioned the theatre, and the bridge on the Maine, which commands a magnificent view, and is more than four hundred feet in length.

Origin of its name. | The name of *Frankfurt*, or *Frankenfurt*,[b] appears to strengthen the French tradition, that the Franks assembled there in the fifth century, and passed from it into Gaul. It was called a town, when Charlemagne enlarged it, after having defeated the Saxons under its walls.

[a] Hassel makes the population amount to fifty-two thousand, and Stein to seventy thousand souls. [b] Furt signifies a Ford or passage.

The suburbs on the left bank of the Maine, which separates it from Frankfort, retains its ancient name of *Saxenhausen*, hence it may be inferred, that it was in early times inhabited by that people.

Frankfort distinguished itself by its zeal in the cause of the reformation; such was the violence of the different parties, that religious opinions occasioned insurrections and revolts until the most of the inhabitants embraced the notions of Luther; it acted, too, an important part in the league of Smalcalden. | Reformation.

It is to a more extensive commerce, that the great number of modern buildings must be chiefly attributed, which, if they go on increasing in the same proportion, Frankfort may be soon little inferior to the finest towns in Germany. The new quarters and quay of Wollgraben have been much embellished; they are every day becoming larger, and are likely, ere long, to form the most important part of the town. | Quarters of Wollgraben.

Frankfort differs from Hamburg, inasmuch as many persons among the wealthy classes cultivate the arts and sciences. It would be foreign to our purpose to enumerate the galleries of paintings, the valuable collections of engravings and antiquities, belonging to different individuals, but the public institutions are creditable to the republic. There are three gymnasia, a school of medicine, two of drawing, one of painting and engraving, a mathematical seminary, and several schools of art. The mount of piety was rather a calamity than a benefit to the people, the town has established in its stead, a fund destined for the assistance of petty merchants and artisans in carrying on their commerce and industry. The public library contains more than a hundred thousand volumes, besides several books and a parchment bible printed by Faust in the year 1462. A valuable collection of medals is attached to the same library. | Useful establishments.

According to the constitution of 1816, the sovereignty is vested in all the citizens, who are born in Frankfort or within its territory. The senate cannot confer the rights of citizens on strangers, who have resided ten years in the town, if they do not possess an independent fortune. The three branches of government are, the senate, the legislative body, and the deputies elected by the burgesses. The legislative body consists of twenty senators, as many members of the permanent deputation, and forty-five burgesses, nominated by the citizens. No person can be elected before the age of thirty years, and if any refuse the office of deputy, they may be deprived of their rights and privileges as citizens. | Government.

The inhabitants of Frankfort are divided into three great Christian communities, which, under the superintendence of the senate, provided separately for the maintainance of their clergy, churches, and schools. But it cannot be remarked without exciting surprise, that in the nineteenth century, both at Hamburg and at Frankfort, wise and enlightened rulers entertain such prejudices against the Jews, as serve to recall the ignorance and superstition of the middle ages. If it be owing to commercial jealousy that the influential men of Frankfort have refused the Jews all the rights and privileges of citizens, the measure is not less impolitic than unjust. The Jews are the only inhabitants of a separate quarter, they are permitted to learn and to exercise certain trades, but the reader may have some difficulty in believing that according to a decision of the legislative body in 1817, not more than fifteen Jewish marriages are allowed to take place in the course of a year, within the town and territory.[1] | Religion.

The revenue of Frankfort amounts to eighty thousand florins, and the public debt to three hundred thousand. The military force consists of a national guard, and four hundred and seventy-nine men, the contingent to the confederation. | Finances, Military force.

[1] See Stein's Geography.

Industry and Commerce.

Silk, linen, cotton and woollen stuffs may be mentioned among the manufactures; the other articles are tobacco, playing cards, types, wax, and porcelain which is little inferior to that of Dresden. But its trade with Germany forms the principal source of its wealth. The continual commercial intercourse which it holds with that country, is facilitated by its position, and by two navigable rivers, the Rhine and the Maine. The two Frankfort fairs, the one at Easter, the other in September, bring together more than sixteen hundred merchants from different parts of Europe.

The people boast that Charles the Bald was born in the town, that the diets of the confederation are still held there; but in the opinion of some it possesses better claims to celebrity, it gave birth to Goëthe, and the first German gazette was published within its walls.

TABLES.

Commerce of Bremen.

Nine hundred and fourteen merchant vessels entered the port of Bremen.

Nations.	Number of Vessels.
United States	54
South American	11
West Indies	25
English	94
French	36
Portuguese	6
Spanish	5
Russian	44
Swedish and Norwegian	55
Hamburg	69
Lubec	13
Mecklenburg	11
Prussian	28
Dutch	10
Hanoverian	53
Oldenburg	64
Bremish vessels and others belonging to different states and principalities in the confederation.	336

Five whale ships sailed from Bremen to Greenland in the same year.

Tables of the Grain Exported from Hamburg, from the Year 1815 *to* 1825 *inclusive.*

	By Sea.			Into the Interior.		
Years.	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.
1816	30,484	42,772	9,392	11,028	33,639	4,659
1817	46,651	25,677	4,962	12,712	32,549	3,852
1818	153,897	14,954	48,715	13,676	48,864	8,600
1819	37,794	2,208	60,452	14,384	35,908	10,712
1820	68,468	874	4,634	17,063	11,270	4,641
1821	20,001	414	5,485	17,082	8,865	4,269
1822	8,700	1,998	3,074	12,885	9,893	7,123
1823	36,291	8,346	6,080	15,042	12,260	4,248
1824	15,014	4,393	36,315	15,943	9,996	11,678
1825	65,329	2,863	112,217	27,403	18,968	14,686
Total	482,629	104,499	291,326	157,218	222,212	74,468

Oats. Quarters.	Peas. Quarters.	Beans. Quarters.	Malt. Quarters.	Buck Wheat. Quarters.	Linseed. Quarters.	Rape. Quarters.	Vetches. Quarters.
20,915	954	1,873	1,455	195	552	12,433	
30,683	1,153	1,630	1,592	654	911	3,505	
33,415	2,858	3,774	3,388	302		5,752	110
11,613	1,076	2,267	2,235	98		5,505	207
28,575	648	1,083	1,748	844	115	3,210	1,094
13,625	508	725	1,963	4,991		6,492	358
26,927	637	1,279	2,274	378	5	15,474	46
25,866	525	600	1,897	1,969	221	19,163	172
37,820	974	2,644	2,339	2,776	154	20,636	4,963
17,348	4,777	2,074	2,480	1,624	38	9,624	3,564
246,487	14,110	17,949	21,371	13,831	1,176	101,794	10,514

Sugars imported from the year 1821 *to* 1825 *inclusive.*[k]

Years.	
1821,	91,849,490
1822,	64,692,640
1823,	74,887,000
1824,	75,577,080
1825,	79,790,380

Coffee.

Years.	Imported.	Exported or consumed.
1821,	21,591,160	22,000,000 pounds.[l]
1822,	28,357,940	26,000,000
1823,	26,535,100	25,000,000
1824,	38,536,720	35,000,000
1825,	34,051,240	34,000,000

Variations in the price of Coffee from the year 1821 *to* 1825 *inclusive.*[m]

Years.	Shillings Banco.
1821,	from $13\frac{7}{8}$ to 14 the pound.
1822,	from $11\frac{7}{8}$ to 12
1823,	from 11 to $11\frac{1}{8}$
1824,	from $8\frac{1}{8}$ to $8\frac{1}{4}$
1825,	from $6\frac{1}{4}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$

Indigo imported.[n]

Year.	
1825,	Cases, 4,341 or 975,000 pounds Bags, 286 or 18,000

[k] A great quantity of sugar arrives at Hamburg from Brazil and the Havannas; the same article is imported from the United States, England, France and Holland.

It is principally refined sugar, that enters Hamburg, and notwithstanding the competition, which it has to maintain with England, it exports annually more than 65,000,000 pounds of refined sugar.

[l] The most of the Coffee imported into Hamburg, comes directly from Havanna, Saint Domingo and Brazil; the rest is brought from the United States.

[m] It may be seen from the above table, that the price of coffee has decreased every year from 1821 to 1825.

[n] Indigo is by no means an important article in the trade of Hamburg; indeed Hamburg and several other states are wholly dependent for their supply on the discretion of England. Indigo in *cases* comes from the East Indies, indigo in *bags* from the West Indies.

Cotton imported.[a]

Year.		
1825,	- -	Bales 16,600 or 6,640,000 pounds.

Ships of different Nations that have entered Hamburg.

Year			
1824,	- -	Vessels from North America	41
		from South America	130
		from different parts of the West Indies	72
		from England[b]	645
1825,	- -	Vessels from North America	39
		from South America	125
		from the West Indies	79
		from England	757
	Total	- - -	1888

Merchant Ships belonging to the Port of Lubeck.

Lubeck possesses about - - - 79 trading vessels.
Number that enters its harbours annually, about 800

BOOK CXXV.

EUROPE.

Germany—Ninth Section—Description of Bohemia.

To complete the description of Germany, some account may be given of the different possessions of the Austrian monarchy, situated in that country. Hungary and its dependencies have already been described, it is unnecessary to mention them more fully, but care must be taken not to confound provinces which, from the manners, language, and origin of the inhabitants, should be considered separately; for, as to Austria, the geographer observes in a much smaller compass, the same confusion, the same heterogeneous parts as in the vast empire of Russia.

Kingdom of Bohemia. | Bohemia, which is now to be described, is a country, both in its physical and political geography, wholly distinct from the territories that surround it. It is equal in superficial extent to nearly nine hundred and fifty-three German, or eleven thousand four hundred and thirty-six English square miles.

Ancient Caspian Sea. | Limited by Bavaria, Saxony, and Prussian Silesia, it is encompassed by mountainous chains, that form a natural basin, once filled by a Caspian Sea, in the depths of which were deposited the

[a] Although a great quantity of cotton is consumed in Germany, very little is imported into Hamburg; it receives it from the United States, Colombia, and different ports in America, Egypt, the Levant, India, and also from different mercantile houses in Italy.

[b] Most of the English vessels carry ballast to Hamburg, and return with cargoes to England, a proof that many articles from Hamburg, are destined for the English markets.

calcareous rocks that shall be afterwards mentioned. The fact that all the mountains, or the contour of the basin, become gradually lower as they approach the centre of the country, serves at first view to strengthen the belief concerning the ancient existence of such a sea. The greatest declivities are situated in the most northern part of the basin; thus the Elbe, which crosses that portion of the country, is enlarged by all the streams that descend from the mountains, and throw themselves, either into its channel, or into the Moldau, which unites with it. The outlet through which the Elbe leaves Bohemia, and enters the North Sea, appears to be the same as the one, by which the ancient Caspian mingled its waters with the ocean. Part of the sands that now cover the Prussian provinces of Magdeburg, Brandenburg, Mecklenburg, and Hanover, may probably be attributed to the irruptions of the same sea. These hypotheses, founded on facts, are intimately connected with the most interesting departments of physical geography.

Mountains.

Four principal chains inclose the basin: the Bœhmer-Wald, or Bohemian forest, stretches from south-east to north-west, and joins the Ertz-Gebirge; these extend from south-west to north-east, and meet the Riesen-Gebirge; the latter follow a contrary direction, and unite with the Mœhrisches-Gebirge, or Moravian mountains, which, passing from north-east to south-west, terminate at the extremity of the Bœhmer-Wald. The chains, as some geographers have remarked, form an irregular four-sided figure. Bohemia, by being thus inclosed, is rendered an isolated country in the middle of Europe; the same circumstance, it may be readily inferred, has had some influence on the civilization and political constitution of its inhabitants. The lowest mountains are those which, extending from north-east to south-west and to south, separate Bohemia from Moravia and Lower Austria. The name of a small chain, the Teufels-Gebirge, or Devil's mountains, at the southern extremity of the Bœhmer-Wald, near the sources of the Moldau, seems to be connected with the tradition of an idolatrous worship.

Rocks and Soil.

The Bœhmer-Wald is a primitive chain, composed of granite, gneiss, micaceous schistus, syenite, and lastly, of argillaceous schistus and different rocks belonging to the same epoch. The same substances are observed on the south, near the town of Krumau, on the banks of the Moldau, and also along the Ertz-Gebirge, which have been already mentioned in the account of Saxony. The central mountains of Bohemia, that extend along the right bank of the Elbe, and join the Riesen-Gebirge, are less remarkable for their height than their rounded summits and sides, proofs that the rocks which compose them, are of igneous origin. The last declivities terminate at some leagues to the north of Bunzlau, and along the whole range are observed sandstone, basalts, and other substances that appear to have been modified by the action of subterranean fire.

Volcanoes.

They are encompassed by calcareous deposites, abounding with fossil shells; thus the basin has been filled by volcanoes, emitting torrents of lava in the depths of the sea. The same phenomena as those observed in the Bœhmer-Wald are exhibited on the side of the Riesen-Gebirge towards Bohemia, but near their extremity, sandstone and calcareous rocks are more frequent, they are arranged in parallel strata. Sandstone of a very soft texture, and which decays easily, abounds in the Moravian mountains, particularly towards the north; it assumes the most singular forms, and at a distance deceives the stranger, who imagines he sees turrets and villages, where no habitations are to be found. If the traveller descends these mountains, the sides of which are covered with forests, he may observe throughout the whole basin of Bohemia, calcareous rocks, that were deposited at the time it was filled with the sea. The limestone is in many places covered with other deposites; rocks con-

sisting chiefly of amphibole, and which hold an intermediate place between the primitive and secondary formations, are situated in the western part of the basin, in the neighbourhood of Plan. Granite and argillaceous schistus are not less common near Tein; alluvial deposites containing fossil wood and iron ore, which yields nearly sixty-two parts of metal, may be observed in the vicinity of Pagrad, to the south of Eger.

These transition rocks rest on micaceous schistus, and similar arrangements are remarked near Prague, between Marienbaden and Ogerlochin. The Commerberg, a volcanic cone, not far from Eger, is covered with lava, and other heights of the same kind extend at different distances to Carlsbad.[a] Traces of volcanoes are observable near Tœplitz, and a sort of red porphyry, from which many mineral springs take their rise. Horizontal layers of limestone mixed with marl rest on the porphyry, and its great inclination in some places may probably have been the effect of sudden and violent shocks. Lastly, the Mittel-Gebirge, or central chain of the country, which rises above the course of the Elbe, was, according to a German geologist,[b] the centre of the volcanic phenomena, that have left so many traces on the southern sides of the Ertz-Gebirge, where basalts and other rocks of an igneous origin are seen in every direction.

Earthquakes. | Although the volcanoes in Bohemia belong to that class which burned before the period that the earth was inhabited by man, the country is subject to shocks, occasioned by subterranean fires. Several took place in the month of January, 1824, on the Ertz-Gebirge, and in the districts of Eger and Ellbogen. Their direction was from north to south, south-west and south-east; they were accompanied in some places with a noise resembling thunder, in others many springs were dried.[c]

Mineral springs. | A country in which the rocks are so various, and the volcanic remains so numerous, abounds generally with mineral springs, at least Bohemia forms no exception to the rule. Such as are most resorted to, are situated in the northern districts; it may suffice to give the reader some notion of their number and celebrity, to mention the springs of Seidlitz and Satzkamen, in the district of Kaurzin, those of Strobnitz in Bechin, the alkaline springs of Bilin, Carlsbad and Tœplitz, the sources in Bechin, near Trautnau, the baths of Kleinkuchel, and Tetschen in the districts of Beraun and Leitmeritz, and lastly, the ferruginous springs of Eger.

Rivers. | The two principal feeders of the Elbe are the Moldau and the Eger; the first crosses Bohemia from its northern extremity to Melnik; the length of its course is more than a hundred and thirty-five miles. The declivity from the Teufel-Gebirge to Prague, a distance of nearly ninety miles, is about two hundred and sixty-nine feet. The Eger which rises in the Fichtel-Gebirge, near their junction with the Bœhmer-Wald, and throws itself into the Elbe at Theresienstadt, has a less rapid course, for the declivity does not exceed a hundred and fifty-eight feet in a distance of seventy-nine miles.[d]

Lakes and Marshes. | Several extensive lakes are situated in the country, the largest are those of Teschmitz in the district of Klattau, Polkenstein on the mountains of the same name, and Kummer in the district of Saatz. But the number of marshes is much greater, there were not fewer in 1786 than twenty thousand, and according to the calculations that were then made in order to regulate the contributions, their surface was not less than a hundred and thirty-two thousand seven hundred acres; draining, however, has since been generally practised, and the number has of consequence

[a] Gœthe, Natur-wiesenschaft. [b] Leonhard, Zeitschrift fur mineralogie. [c] See the observation published by M. Hallaschka. Archiv. fur die gesamte natur-lehre tome I. page 320.

[d] Umriss einer geographisch-statistischen Schilderung des Kœnigreichs Bœhmer, by J. Reichtenstern.

been considerably reduced. The marsh of Ezeperka near Pardubitz is perhaps the most extensive, the numerous islands it encompasses are covered with trees. Other marshes situated in different parts of the kingdom, are formed by the annual inundations of rivers, or by the waters which descend from the mountains into low vallies, but as none of them are large, it is unnecessary to describe them.

The climate of Bohemia is modified by the nature of the country, its lofty mountains, extensive plains and deep vallies. It is temperate in the central districts and in the frontiers on the south-west, but the mountains covered with forests have an influence on the temperature to a considerable distance from their sides. The variation of Reaumur's thermometer at Prague, gives the annual mean term of 7° 7′. It has been proved by registers kept in the observatory at the same town, that the greatest heat was from 23° to 24° of Reaumur, and the greatest cold, about 16° below zero. The thermometrical variations at Eger, the remotest part of the western frontier, indicate a mean term of 7° 4′, while at Krumau near the southern extremity, it is not greater than 6° 9′. | Climate.

The prevalent winds in Bohemia blow from south-east and south-west. The east and north-east winds are almost always accompanied with rain, but the north, north-west, and south-west winds are sure signs of dry weather. The quantity of rain that falls yearly, amounts to eighteen or nineteen inches, the evaporation that takes place in the shade, to fourteen. The number of rainy days, observed in a series of eighteen years, was annually equal on an average, to ninety; the proportion that subsisted between days of calm and cloudless weather, and those in which the sky was partly covered with clouds or mists, was as one to five.* | Winds.

No accurate information can be obtained concerning the ancient people that inhabited Bohemia; it is known however that they were subdued, and in a great measure destroyed by the Boii, who under the command of Sigovessus, settled in the country about six centuries before the Christian era. Strabo, Pliny, and other writers make mention of the same people, from whom the present name of Bohemia is derived. | Ancient inhabitants.

The Boii experienced for a long period all the vicissitudes of war; their history is confined to migrations, victories and defeats,—the results of battles with their neighbours. Ancient writers make mention of them possessing at one time the country beyond the Danube, in other words, the basin of Bohemia, at another time, the lands between the Danube and the Drave, lastly, Thrace and Illyria. Some degree of confusion, therefore, naturally arises as to the countries which they occupied; hence Pellotier supposes that they all issued from Gaul or Italy. Mentelle appears to be the only author, who has thrown any light on the migrations of the Boii; according to that writer, they accompanied Belovesus, who marched at the head of several barbarous tribes, in his expedition into Italy. These Boii were then settled on the northern declivities of the Apennines in the present territory of Bologna, and in all probability, they were only a colony that separated from their countrymen in Bohemia. After the fruitless attempt of Belovesus, the Boii were repulsed by the Romans, and forced to retreat to the Danube, near the frontiers of Illyria; subdued and nearly annihilated by the Getæ, the country to which they had migrated, remained desert, hence Strabo calls it the desert of the Boii.† But the great body of the people, who inhabited the mountains in Bohemia, were not long secure from the attacks of their neighbours. About two hundred and eighty years before the birth of our Saviour, the Cimbri tried more than once to subdue them, and failed as | Boii.

* See Leichtenstern's Essay, cited above. † Strabo, book VII. chap. II. section 5.

often in the attempt. It was not until thirty or forty years after the vulgar era, that the Marcomani defeated them and took possession of their territory. The Boii found a new country in the plains watered by the Danube, that form at present part of Bavaria. It is on that account that Tacitus says, although the inhabitants are changed, the name of Bohemia, which still remains, serves to perpetuate the remembrance of their ancient country.[g] Although afterwards driven from their territory by the Marcomani, they held no mean reputation in Germany; they joined the Helvetii, and invaded Gaul, while the Edui resisted Cæsar; the Roman general, after the conquest of the latter, might have compelled them to seek for shelter in the Hercynian forest, but in consideration of their valour and courage, he made over to them part of their lands. Thus, it appears from these details, that the Boii have several times changed their country; but it must not be inferred that their different possessions were inhabited by five distinct people of the same name; on the contrary, it was the same people, who at different epochs settled in five different countries.

Marcomani. According to Tacitus, the Marcomani were the most powerful people of any in the territories between the Danube and the Hercynian forest; the fact that they conquered Bohemia, may confirm the opinion of the historian. They were governed by kings, chosen from the most illustrious families of their nation, but after the reign of Augustus, the Romans placed foreign rulers over them.

Rome never assisted them with her arms, but corrupted them with gold and silver.[h] Maroboduus is of all the native princes, the one most frequently mentioned in the annals of Tacitus. Strabo informs us that after having passed his youth at Rome under the protection of Augustus, he was called to govern his countrymen. The commencement of his reign was prosperous; he led the Marcomani to the conquest of Bohemia, and made himself master of the country inhabited by the Boii. He subdued several neighbouring states, and enriched himself with their spoils. He possessed great influence over a portion of Germany, and formed a league, consisting of the Hermunduri, Quadi, Semnones, Longobardi and other states, against Hermann or Arminius, who had become formidable after having defeated the legions of Varus. But in this contest Maroboduus was unsuccessful; in vain he implored the assistance of the Romans, they saw with secret joy, the enemies who had resisted their yoke, weakened by divisions amongst themselves. Abandoned by his allies, without authority over his people, Maroboduus had no other resource than to implore the protection of Germanicus, who granted him an asylum in Italy, where he past the rest of his days.

Slavi. The descendants of the Marcomani, at the time when the Roman power began to decline, were invaded and compelled to give up their country to different nations, whose names were hardly known to the Romans. These nations, or different Slavonic people, migrated from Poland, and the north of Hungary.

The time that they first invaded Bohemia is uncertain, indeed little is known of their history before the sixth century. They were called *Tchekhes*, or *Czechs*, by the western Slavi, a name which, in their language, signifies the *First*, probably because the country they inhabited, was nearest to Germany. Their government was at first republican, but lest they should be expelled from Bohemia, by the Avarians and the Huns, they chose a king, who, if tradition can be believed, was Samo, a Franconian merchant, a man of wisdom and courage; he governed them for a number of years, and freed them from the yoke of the Avarians. A regency was appointed

[g] Manet adhuc Boihemi nomen, significatque loci veterem memoriam, quamvis cultoribus mutatis. Tacitus, de Moribus Germanorum, section 28.

[h] Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum.

at his death, and it continued until *Krock* was elected; that prince was succeeded by his daughter Libussa, surnamed the magician, who reigned with Przemysl, her husband, between the years 722 and 745. The sovereignty was hereditary for several generations; but the early part of the Bohemian history is involved in obscurity.

Little is known concerning it, before the middle of the ninth century; until that period they continued in idolatry, and had to oppose at the same time, the attacks of the Germans, and the sermons of the monks, who were continually sent from Rome. Fourteen princes and the great duke Borziwoy were baptized in the year 894, and Prague was erected into a diocese in 972.

The dignity of great duke was elective until the middle of the eleventh century. Brzetislaw was the first, who passed a law in the year 1053, making the succession hereditary, but the law did not continue in force, long after the death of the prince. Otho the First conquered Bohemia, and added it to the empire in 1086. Henry the Fifth conferred on duke Brzetislaw the Second, the title of king, in 1086, and since that period the monarchy was elective. Historical recollections.

The country was much improved by the German colonists that settled during the ninth century; for Bohemia, isolated from other nations, did not emerge from barbarism, before the introduction of Christianity, which, by opening communications with Rome, prepared the way for the civilization of the Slavi. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, Ottocar encouraged German workmen and artists of every kind; under the same prince, industry was diffused in the towns, and commerce freed from its shackles. Order and tranquillity were maintained, and written laws were kept in the principal cities. His successor, Ottocar the Second, though called to the throne of Austria, extended his power, not only over Bohemia, but a part of Silesia, Poland, and Prussia. Possessing the same views, he continued the work of his father, protected the arts and sciences, and encouraged the introduction of the German language, as the great means of enlightening his subjects. The manners and habits of the people had undergone great changes about the commencement of the fourteenth century; by that time the laws were written in German. Prague, which was one of the most important cities in Germany, became the seat of the arts and sciences. Progress of civilisation.

The emperor Charles the Fourth had been elected king of Bohemia, and the states general of the kingdom declared the monarchy hereditary in his family. It was to the same prince that the capital is indebted for its university. Wenceslas, his son and successor, reformed the laws, and substituted the national language in the different courts. John Huss and Jerome of Prague, flourished in the same reign; but the inhabitants were too ignorant to appreciate their wise and enlightened views concerning religious reform, their virtues, talent, and noble disinterestedness.

These apostles of the reformation appeared in the world at too early a period; they were not understood, their characters were calumniated. Intriguing persons made use of their own expressions to excite the civil war, that may have rendered Ziska, the brave and disinterested chief, illustrious, but served only to protract the existence of abuses, which good men wished to see abolished. The monarchy became elective after the death of Wenceslas.

Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, obtained the sovereignty in 1426; his reign forms an epoch, not only because hereditary succession was established in his family, and the prerogatives of the Bohemian states restricted in the election of their kings, but because in his time, great advances were made in knowledge. The prince endeavoured in vain to check the progress of civilization; it was in vain that he protected the Jesuits, and banished all those who were thought favourable to the reformation,

neither was it attended with any advantage that censors prohibited books from being sold or published in his dominions; the impulse which had been given to the age could not be checked. The art of printing diffused among the wealthy classes, the writings of the ancients, and the most admired compositions in every language. If many read the works of Erasmus, it was partly Ferdinand's fault, because he permitted a translation of them to be dedicated to himself; so far, at least, he weakened unknowingly the effects of his system.

Ferdinand's successor, Maximilian the Second, followed a different line of policy; wise and tolerant, he granted in 1576, the benefits of religious liberty to all his subjects; but those who opposed freedom of conscience, failed not to excite obstinate fanatics;—violent controversies, reiterated complaints, and exorbitant demands were the fruits of his liberal system. Mathias, who reigned next, thought fit to impose new restrictions on the protestants; in place of controversies, insurrections and revolts ensued. The thirty years war added to the calamities of Bohemia; its population was diminished, its finances were exhausted. The effects of such evils might have continued for a long period, had not Maria Theresa appeared and repaired them. It is to that empress that Bohemia owes the abolition of slavery, and the freedom of industry; to the same celebrated woman the country is indebted for many wise laws, a better system of education, and different institutions, which, although not to be compared with others that have insured the prosperity of some European states, are not on that account the less beneficial to a people, whose rulers adopt slowly the improvements of enlightened governments.

Constitution. According to the federative act of 1815, Bohemia forms a part of the Germanic confederation. As an integral portion of the Austrian monarchy, the succession is hereditary; it passes in a direct line to the different members of the reigning family. It appears from the fundamental law of the kingdom, that its political organization has not been changed, it depends on the same principles and enactments as in past ages. The king, at his coronation, takes an oath not to alienate the kingdom, to respect the constitution, protect the states, and preserve the privileges conferred on them by the emperors Ferdinand the Second, Ferdinand the Third, and their successors, to maintain justice, and support the catholic religion with all his power.

Political Organization of the kingdom. The states are divided into four classes; the clergy, nobles, or lords, the petty nobility, or knights, and, lastly, the royal towns. Their deputies form a general assembly, they meet as often as they are called together by the king, who appoints a president, or lord commissioner, over them. Their functions are very limited; they may deliberate on the means of executing what is proposed by the crown, but they cannot petition, much less can any proposition emanate from them without the authority of government, or the royal commissioner who represents the government; for, according to M. Liechtenstern, the king of Bohemia is, as he has always been, absolute sovereign of the country. In these assemblies, the clergy, who, by a law of Ferdinand, are superior to the other states, take an oath of allegiance to the crown. They are represented by the archbishops and bishops, the great prior of the order of Malta, and the other prelates in the kingdom. The princes, dukes, counts, and barons are the members of the high nobility, and the eight most important offices in the state must be filled by individuals belonging to that body.

Although the number of royal towns is not less than forty-eight, four only are entitled to elect deputies. These privileged towns are, Prague, Budweis, Pilsen, and Kuttenberg. Other towns are directly subject to the government; three of them, Saatz, Kommotau, and Kaaden are represented. The protected cities, as they are called, form a third class; although

they may be situated in seigniories, they are freed from seigneurial burdens and imposts; most of the towns having mines in their territory, belong to the last class.

Although these distinctions exist, and others by which the peasants are divided into four classes—the proprietors of land, the tenants of houses, farmers, or tenants of land, and, lastly, the day labourers, or workmen—the law acknowledges no difference in individuals, and the police watches with equal vigilance over them all.

Religion.

The unjust laws that have been passed against the Jews, show not only the striking difference between the Austrian government and the enlightened governments of Europe, but keep up in the minds of the Bohemians, prejudices as inveterate against the same people as those that existed in the dark ages. The hatred and contempt in which the lower orders of Christians in different nations hold the Jews, may be explained by those who know how difficult it is to eradicate false opinions, strengthened by religious belief. But it is not so easy to explain why those who are called to the government of the state, participate in the same errors. The degraded state of the Jews in Bohemia, must be imputed to the government under which they live; if they are the worthless and despicable set of people they are supposed to be, the necessity of reclaiming them seems to be more urgent. But the Jews cannot be reformed, cannot be made useful members of the community, if they are suffered to remain in ignorance, if they are rendered indifferent as to character, and if the law is made the echo of the popular prejudices against them.

Moral and political state of the Jews.

Some necessary consequences of the Austrian policy in this respect, may be shortly mentioned. All agree that the Jews in Bohemia have made no advances in civilization for more than half a century. They observe strictly the fundamental principles of a religion that separates them from other nations. Many refuse to drink out of the glass that a christian has used; they abstain from wine on their journeys, if none can be got which has been put into casks or bottles by their brethren; the flesh of every animal slain by a christian is considered unclean.

It ought, on the other hand, to be recollected, that the Christians in Bohemia have committed flagrant acts of injustice against the Jews; it has been determined more than once to banish them the kingdom; but the sentence was often averted by exorbitant sums of money, together with presents made to men in power. A law has been passed since 1817, the effect of which is to prevent their increase, for according to the enactment, no woman can marry before the age of eighteen, and no man before that of twenty-two. If any enter into wedlock at an earlier period, such marriages are null, and the rabbis that celebrate them are banished. Can it be supposed, after the statement of these facts, that the Jews in Bohemia enjoy the privileges of citizens, that their property and wealth are secure? Government has shown its regard for them by putting them without the pale of ordinary legislation. If two persons are prevented from marrying because the one is seventeen and the other twenty-one years of age, what else is it than to encourage immorality and adultery? It is by such means that profligacy and seduction may perhaps become common among a people, who, whatever their faults may be, are an example to christians for conjugal fidelity.

The author from whom these details have partly been taken,[1] commends the oppressive measures of the Austrian government against the Jews, a proof that great acquirements are not incompatible with unfounded prejudice. If Mr. Liechtenstern may be believed, the Jews cannot be enlightened by education, they are men altogether destitute of generous sentiments,

[1] Liechtenstern.

It was rightly maintained thirty years ago, continues the same author, that the number of Jews was a great evil; they have always been the objects of popular hatred, but their gradual increase may render vain both the vigilance of the police and the *wise laws* that have been passed against them. The facts on which M. Liechtenstern founds his opinion shall be afterwards examined; certainly much weight cannot be attached to them, if they be confined to the pretended crime of usury, or the commercial superiority which distinguishes the Jews, and excites the nation against them.

Protestants.

Before the edict of Joseph the Second was passed, it might have been inferred from the rigour with which as many were punished as were suspected of being protestants, that the whole nation was devoted to the church of Rome. But no sooner was the liberty of conscience proclaimed,[k] than whole towns became suddenly Lutheran. It must be confessed, that the protestants of almost every denomination have since that time been protected by government, still they are not very numerous, the proportion between them and the catholics is nearly as one to thirty three. Thus, notwithstanding the edict of Joseph the Second, the cloisters are as thickly peopled as formerly, the number of convents is not less than seventy-six, and five of them are inhabited by women.

Dignitaries.

The archbishop of Prague is styled a prince of the kingdom, and receives from Rome the title of legate of the holy see; he as well as the other bishops are nominated by the king, the pope confirms their appointment. No bull can be published in the kingdom without the consent of government. The highest spiritual courts which the protestants acknowledge, are the consistories at Prague and Vienna. The Jewish worship is under the direction of a council, the members are the great Rabbi at Prague, and two assistants.

Population.

The present population of Bohemia is not accurately known; according to the last census, that of 1818, it amounted then to 3,275,866 inhabitants; in that number there were 1,520,934 males, and 1,754,932 females. It appears from the most authentic accounts, that the country did not contain more than 2,887,769 inhabitants in 1791, so that the increase in a period of twenty-seven years, was equal to 388,097 individuals. The population in 1827 may thus be nearly ascertained by a very simple calculation; in short, if the third part of 388,097 be added to the census of 1818, then the result gives nearly the number of inhabitants in 1827. It may be thus seen that they amounted to 3,405,231, but that number is rather under than above the truth, for the years that have elapsed since the peace, have been favourable to population.[l]

Nations which make up the population.

The inhabitants consist chiefly of three distinct people; the Tchekhes or Slavonians, the Germans and Jews. The first form two-thirds of the population in the kingdom. The circle of Elnbogen is wholly, and other circles are partly, peopled by Germans; their total number does not exceed eight hundred and fifty thousand; as to the Jews, they may be equal to fifty thousand.

Germans.

Most of the Germans in the country, who arrived about the ninth century, migrated from Saxony, and were employed in working the mines; the rest were almost all artisans; they came from different countries on the banks of the Rhine, at that time too populous, and settled in the towns. They were so numerous in Prague during the fourteenth century, and possessed so great a preponderance from their wealth, that the most important offices were committed to them. The university of Prague was founded in the same century, that institution

[k] The edict was passed on the 13th October 1781.

[l] The time elapsed from 1818 to 1827 is equal to nine years; the increase in twenty-seven ars is known; if the third part of it therefore be added to the census for 1818, it gives population in 1827.

tended to increase their number; for the desire of knowledge attracted many students from Germany, and not a few settled in the country. Lastly, when the partisans of Huss, who were all of Slavonic origin, were persecuted and obliged to quit Bohemia, the most of their property was confiscated and divided among German nobles, who, like the nobility under Lewis the fourteenth, enriched themselves with the spoils of the protestants, and had no scruples about receiving ill gotten wealth. If to these causes, so favourable to the settlement of the Germans in Bohemia, be added another, the protection which they obtained when the country was governed by Austria, for since that period, Germans have filled the highest offices in the state, it may be easily explained, why their influence is great, although their number is comparatively inconsiderable, and also why their language is so generally used. The lower orders among the Tchekhes retain their dialect, which together with the German is spoken by the middling classes.

Bohemian language.

The Tchekhe or Bohemian language is one of those dialects which have been styled Bohemo-Polish by M. Balbi.* It differs from the other dialects, such as the Polish, Croatian and Ragusan, not merely in its grammatical forms, but by its German characters, for in the others, the Roman letters are used. That the Bohemians sprung from the Tchekhes, may be easily known by their pronunciation. If the German Bohemians are descended from the Bavarians, Saxons, Silesians or Austrians, or inhabit the frontiers near them, they retain the pronunciation of these different nations.

Physical constitution.

The people in Bohemia are strong and laborious, active and well made. According to calculations published by Reiger and Liechtenstern, three individuals die annually out of a hundred; the proportion between the deaths and births, is as a thousand to a thousand three hundred and forty-four; out of ten thousand infants, a hundred and ninety-nine are still-born; the number of births is to the population as one to twenty-three. The total number of deaths amount to nearly ninety thousand, and of these seven hundred and seventy are violent or occasioned by accidents. But the mortality is not so great in some remote districts; in Beraun, Bitschow, Bonzlau, Chrudin, Czaslau, Klattau and Prachin, the deaths do not make up a fortieth or a forty-fifth part of the population. Numerous examples of longevity might be mentioned; there were several persons in 1801, between ninety and a hundred years of age. It is stated that out of five thousand nine hundred and thirty-five, seven hundred and fifty had passed their hundredth year, and twenty-nine were upwards of a hundred and ten. The proportion between natural and lawful children was, at the same period, nearly as eight to a hundred, or seventy-six to a thousand. The mean duration of marriages is twenty-two years and two months, and the mean number of children from every marriage about four. One marriage takes place yearly out of every hundred and thirty-four inhabitants, and the total number of married men in 1817, amounted to 569,793. It might be worth while to compare some of these facts, which relate only to the christian population, with others relative to the Jews; among them the number of deaths is one in sixty-two, but the number of births does not exceed one in forty-three.

Character of the Germans.

The Germans and Tchekhes differ as much in their character as in their language; they resemble each other in their strict observance of religious ceremonies, in their devotedness to their sovereign, and in their hatred against the seigneurial nobility. The Slavonians may be distinguished from the Germans by the care which they take of their property, and by their constant desire of adding to it; they are less susceptible of attachment, less faithful in their affections, more addicted to so-

* See the Atlas Ethnographique.

ciety, dissipation and amusement. They boast of their prudence, but it consists principally in not trusting their neighbours, particularly the Germans, whom they still consider enemies. In the military service, the soldiers of both nations rival each other in zeal and courage. The mountaineers are distinguished by a greater aptitude for the arts, by their generosity and a dignity of character, which are rarely observed among the people on the plains.

Dress. | The stranger who travels through Bohemia, must perceive a great difference in the dress of the inhabitants; it does not, as in other countries, depend merely on wealth and fortune, it serves to distinguish the Slavonian from the German, and the German from the Jew. The Slavonic dress may be known on the mountains and on the plains, by its resemblance to the Polish costume. Although some Germans have adopted it, the observer does not confound them with the other inhabitants, the character of their physiognomy is widely different. These remarks are only applicable to the lower orders; the middling, as well as the upper classes of society, dress like the French; for the fashions of that country are soon adopted by the gay and the wealthy. The Jews have retained the costume which is used by the lower orders, but they may be easily known, as they are the most filthy class of people in the country.

Food of the people. | The food of the inhabitants is very different in different districts, and the cause depends more on the wealth and poverty of the soil, than on the wealth and poverty of the people. Barley and oat meal, milk and potatoes, are generally used on the mountains, particularly by the labourers; beer is reserved for holy-days. But in the vallies and the plains, where nature is more profuse, the husbandmen have better and more substantial nourishment. The use of animal food is not so rare, and beer or wine is the ordinary drink. The Jews are more sober and abstemious than the other inhabitants; their thin and emaciated forms seem almost to prove that they deprive themselves of the necessary quantity of subsistence. Although in a wretched and degraded state, they never take wine, spirits, or any strong drink to excess; it is the christian only that gets drunk in festivals and holy-days.

Agriculture. | It might be concluded from the consideration in which landed proprietors are held in most parts of Bohemia, that agriculture is well understood, that the husbandman derives from the fields whatever they are capable of producing. The truth is, however, that there are few countries where agriculture is not better understood. The cause must be principally attributed to the inveterate prejudices and slothful habits of the peasantry; those districts in which, from the quality of the soil, one might expect to find the most abundant harvests, yield but scanty crops. But in the mountains, on the other hand, poor lands and inclement seasons, though great obstacles to fruitful harvests, have rendered the people more active and intelligent. It results from their efforts that some high districts produce more than is sufficient for the local consumption; indeed, one of them, the district of Leitmeritz, in the central chain, has been called the *Paradise of Bohemia*. If in the lower part of the country, which is naturally the most wealthy, a better system of agriculture was adopted, if government excited the husbandmen to labour, by encouraging the circulation of their products, by opening outlets for commerce, by improving the breed of cattle, which are every where deficient, both in number and quality; the country might assume a new aspect, acquire great political importance, and become the brightest ornament in the crown of Austria. The breeding of sheep is neglected, not only on the chain of the Riesen-Gebirge, which contains good pasturage, but throughout the whole kingdom. No reason can be assigned why as valuable sheep might not be reared in Bohemia as in Saxony or Silesia. Sheep are certainly more valuable than the goats

which are every year increasing in the country. All agree that the Bohemian horses are of an excellent quality; many are kept in different places by government, for the purpose of improving the breed,[n] and a strong, active, and hardy race has thus been naturalized.

Climate of Bohemia.

The climate of Bohemia does not appear favourable to the culture of the vine; the quantity raised annually seldom exceeds 2600 *eimers*, or 540,000 gallons. It is, however, more than six hundred years ago since the vine was first introduced into Bohemia. Plants were imported by Charles the Fourth from Burgundy and the banks of the Rhine; wine, it has been affirmed, was then so abundant as to render it unnecessary to import any from foreign countries.[o]

Fruit trees.

The culture of fruit trees is found to be profitable; their number has increased considerably within the last twenty years, but at that time, however, it amounted to nearly eleven millions, consisting principally of apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees; their annual produce forms an important branch of commerce.[p]

Lint and hops.

Perhaps the most productive plants are hops and lint; the first is cultivated in all the fruitful lands; there are two kinds of it, the common and the green hop, the latter increases of its own accord.

Forests.

All the different trees that are known in Germany, grow in the forests of Bohemia; they yield annually a quantity of timber much more than sufficient for the wants of the people; the greater portion is therefore exported.

Bees.

The rearing of the industrious insects that furnish honey and wax, is common in most parts of the country; the number of hives belonging to the peasantry has not been estimated at less than sixty thousand.

Game, fish.

The mountains and the forests abound in different sorts of game, some of which multiply in the plains. The rivers, lakes, and marshes are stored with various kinds of fish; more than two thousand hundred weight are sold or exported every year from the seigniory of Pardubitz in the district of Chrudim. The country is mostly supplied with trouts from the lordship of Bidschow. Carps, weighing from twenty to thirty pounds, are not unfrequently taken in some of the marshes. Many fresh water pearls are collected in the Moldau, the Elster, and other rivers. Salmon, and the fish which the Germans call the welsfisch, the *Silurus Glanis* (Linnæus,) that weighs from ninety to a hundred pounds, frequent the Elbe. The same fish attains a greater size in the Danube; next to the sturgeon, it is the largest of any that are found in fresh water.

Siluris or Sheat fish.

The head of the Siluris is broad and flat, the mouth, which is very large, is furnished with a great number of small teeth; the back is round and of a greenish black, the belly of a bright green, and black spots are scattered over the body. The fins are yellow, tipt with blue, and covered with small sharp points of the same colour. The silurus has a voracious appetite; it seeks, during the night, the spawn in the rivers, or the carcasses of birds and quadrupeds which the waters have thrown near the banks. A naturalist affirms that the remains of children have been found in its stomach.[q] As it is slow in its motions, for its fins are short, it seldom overtakes its prey; it is probably on that account that it remains always during the day under stones, the roots of trees, or in

[n] The best horses are bred near Blatto, Alt-Bunzlau, Chlumetz, Josephstadt, Klattau, Kœniggrætz, Nemoschutz, Nimburg, Pardubitz, Pilsen, Pisek, Podiebrad, Prague, Tabor, Theresienstadt, and Kladrub.

[o] J. M. Leichtenstern, Umris einer geographisch-statischens childerung des Kœnigreichs-Bœhmen.

[p] Principally in the districts of Bidschow, Kœniggrætz, Bunzlau, Saatz, Leitmeritz, Prachin, and Rakonitz.

[q] M. Bose, Membre de l'Academie des Sciences.

holes. Concealed by the ooze, its dark colour renders it invisible to the other fish; its whiskers appear on the mud, and in their movements and size have some resemblance to worms; the small fish seize the bait, but as it keeps its mouth open, they are not aware of the danger, until it is too late to escape. The silurus grows slowly; its life is consequently of long duration; it is taken by the hook and the spear; the flesh of the animal is white, soft, and disagreeable to the taste.

Mines. It is difficult to examine any mineralogical collections, without being convinced of the fact that Bohemia abounds in minerals. It is in the chain of the Ertz-Gebirge that the most extensive works are carried on, while in the south-west part of the country, the mines, so celebrated in ancient times, are now wholly exhausted. The only tin mines in Bohemia, and in the whole Austrian empire, are situated on the declivities of the Ertz-Gebirge; their produce is not very great, it does not amount annually to nine thousand hundred weight. Attempts have lately been made to work some gold mines at the base of the Riesen-Gebirge. More than eight centuries ago, the district of Kaurzim was so rich in that metal, that about the year 998, the single mine of Tobalka, yielded ten thousand marks of gold. It is admitted, however, that the experiments which have been hitherto made, have not corresponded with the expectations of the miners, still the gold washings on the banks of the Eule, the Sazawa, the Wottawa, the Lesnitz, and other rivers, which flow in alluvial lands, are continued with some success. The silver mines in the district of Tabor, on the side of the Moravian mountains, are not productive. Several copper mines are situated in other districts, but they are not so abundant as the lead mines, although the produce of the latter does not exceed seven or eight thousand quintals. The silver mines yield annually about two thousand four hundred marks. The iron mines are, without doubt, the most important of any in the kingdom; they are worked in almost all the mountains, and the quantity of forged iron thus obtained, is not less than two hundred thousand quintals. Zinc, arsenic, and mercury are obtained in different parts of the country; coals are abundant, and the salt springs are sufficiently productive to supply, not only Bohemia, but lower Austria.

Mineral waters. It is sufficient to mention among the numerous mineral springs in the country, those of Tœplitz, Carlsbad, and Sedlitz, which are so celebrated that it may be necessary to enter into some details concerning them. The waters of Tœplitz are saline, ferruginous, and alkaline; their temperature is about 117° of Fahrenheit. A German naturalist has endeavoured to explain the formation of the seven springs at Carlsbad. As their temperature is very high, he supposes that in the granite in the vicinity, chemical and galvanic effects are taking place, which by the action of non-mineral water, account for the formation of these warm springs.[r] According to the same author, the Tepel supplies this natural laboratory; he founds his opinion on a well known fact, namely, that the springs are not so abundant in dry as in rainy weather, and also on the fact that gaz bubbles escape often from the waters of the river. Other naturalists attribute the heat of the springs to central fires in the earth. It seems to be generally admitted that we are not in possession of sufficient facts to enable us to explain these phenomena. It may be remarked, that according to the analysis of a distinguished chemist, the waters of Carlsbad contain a great quantity of sulphate and carbonate of soda.[s] It has been observed too by a physician, that they may be used with success in hysterical and hypochondriacal diseases.[t]

Sedlitz waters. The purgative waters of Sedlitz which are imported into every country in Europe, are used with greater success than the last,

[r] M. Gœthe, Natur-weisenschaft, tome VI. page 211. [s] M. Berzelius. [t] M. Alibert, Precis historique sur les eaux minerales, les plus usitées en medicine.

in the same complaints. They are so well known that it is needless to describe their properties, or to state that they are clear and limpid, of a bitter and salt taste. It appears from their chemical analysis that they contain sulphate and carbonate of lime, and magnesia, as well as carbonic acid gas.

It has been already observed that various precious stones are found in Bohemia. Some of them are, the garnet, the ruby, the sapphire, the amethyst, the hyacinthus, and the topaz. These furnish employment to the lapidary; jaspers, cornelions, and calcedony are used for different purposes. Different kinds of stone, well adapted for building, marble, and serpentine are common in many parts of the country. Good millstones are obtained in other places, and also a sort of schistus that is converted into excellent sharping stones, and kaolin that is used in the porcelain works. | Precious stones, &c.

Industry has made rapid advances in Bohemia within the last twenty years; more than six hundred thousand pieces of linen are annually obtained from its manufactories, and they are sold for more than nine millions of florins. The produce of the tan-works may be estimated at nearly two millions two hundred thousand florins; the price given for the hats made in the country, amounts to nine hundred thousand; and the sum obtained for all the other different articles and manufactures, exceeds twenty-three millions, while the utmost value of the raw material is not equal to a fourth part of the same sum; thus in that class of products there is a profit of sixteen millions of florins, which are divided among the workmen, the manufacturers and the merchants. It may be worth while to mention an important manufactory of lace and blond, which has been established at Hirchenstand in the circle of Elnbogen for more than forty years. It furnishes employment to eight thousand individuals, and the annual produce of their industry is equal to two hundred and eighty thousand florins. The greater portion of the last article is consumed in the country, the rest are exported to Saxony; from that kingdom, the fine thread is obtained, while Austria furnishes the common thread and the silk. | Manufactures.

It is only necessary to make one or two remarks on the commerce of Bohemia, to account for the jealousy and hatred which subsist against the Jews. The inhabitants reproach them, because they never follow any trade or occupation in which manual labour is required. It may be feared that if they were to do so, they might be as much detested by tradesmen and work people, as they are at present by the mercantile part of the community. The Jews themselves seem to be aware of that circumstance, and besides, as most of them have numerous families, how could they be able to maintain their children during a long apprenticeship? | Commerce.

They are all brokers or money agents, a profession much more easy than any other, and one which does not require a previous training or apprenticeship; the example of the father suffices for the son.

It has been said, that in whatever part of Bohemia, the Jews are numerous, the manufactures are sooner or later ruined. If the statement be correct, it proves merely the want of foresight, or improvidence of the manufacturers. It is probable, that in Bohemia, as in every other country, many manufacturers begin business without a sufficient capital to carry it on. If the tradesman cannot fulfil his engagements with the Jew, but is obliged to give, instead of money, his manufactures at a loss, he is very likely to be soon ruined; but ought his misfortunes to be attributed to the Jew? The one sells his money at as dear a rate as he can, and the other is as eager to sell his manufactures or merchandise at the highest price. The great law of commerce is equally applicable to them both. | Industry of the Jews.

[a] F. Hoffmann, De acidularum et thermarum usu et abusu. See also the analysis of them by Neumann.

Exports.

Bohemia exports not only its manufactures or the products of its industry; those of agriculture, such as grain, vegetables and fruits, as well as the surplus timber that its forests yield, are exchanged for colonial produce, sufficient to supply the wants of the people. The countries with which it maintains direct commercial intercourse, are Prussia, Saxony, the great dutchy of Baden and Bavaria. The fish, for much more are obtained than can be consumed in Bohemia, are exported to Austria. Nothing perhaps tends more to keep up the commerce of the country, than the annual fares in different towns; the most important are held at Prague and Pilsen.

Methods of transporting merchandise.

Goods are transported on the Elbe, the Moldau and the Eger, in boats that carry from three hundred to twelve hundred quintals. The navigation against the current, is often effected by the assistance of sails, while the north and north-east winds prevail in the countries that are watered by the Elbe. If a projected canal, which is to connect the Danube with the Moldau, were finished, Bohemia might derive great advantage from it, and as much perhaps if the principal roads were completed, which it is at present proposed to extend. It is certain than in 1817 their utmost length was not more than eight hundred and fifty English miles.

Prague.

From the details into which we have entered, the reader may form a correct idea of Bohemia; the principal towns in the same country are yet to be described. Prague or the capital is situated almost in the centre of the kingdom. Four quarters extend on the banks of the Moldau, which crosses the city; on one side are built the Old and the New Town, on the other, Kleine-Seite or the small quarter, and on the other Hradschin or the Upper Town. The population amounts to eighty-four thousand inhabitants, and the number of houses to three thousand four hundred. The situation of Prague has been much admired both on account of the Moldau, which may be about five hundred and sixty yards in breadth, the beauty of the neighbouring country, and the distant views of Mount Schwein and Petrin, that bound the horizon. The town occupies a great extent of ground; it cannot be less than twelve miles in circumference. Each quarter has its curiosities; in the Old Town, the stranger may observe a bridge across the Moldau, about eighteen hundred feet in length, supported by sixteen arches, adorned with twenty-eight statues of the saints, and built by the Emperor Charles the Fourth in the year 1338. The other buildings in the same quarter, are the Carolin or ancient university, founded in 1371, the townhouse, remarkable for an astronomical clock, the work of the celebrated Tycho-Brahe, the church of Thein, in which is contained the mausoleum of the same great astronomer, the fine church of the Holy Cross, the museum of natural history, and the observatory. The streets in the new town are broad and well built; on an eminence are observed the ruins of the Wischerad, an ancient castle that belonged to the kings of Bohemia; another townhouse is situated in the same quarter; the Hussites threw thirteen members of the municipal council out of its windows. The Kleine-Seite or Little Quarter is still better built than the last; it may be remarked for its fine houses, the church of Saint Nicholas, and the palace of Wallenstein. But in point of situation, the Hradschin or the upper town is finer than any other quarter; it is adorned by the royal castle, the building of which was continued at intervals for several centuries, and was at last completed by Mary Theresa; the Dome or the cathedral, a model of Gothic architecture, rises near the same edifice. Prague possesses great number of public buildings, many charitable and useful institutions, scientific collections and libraries, one of which, belonging to the university, contains a hundred and thirty thousand volumes, and a manuscript of Pliny.

Antiquity.

It is believed that Prague stands on the site of Marobudum, an ancient town of the Marcomanni, so called from Marobod or

Maroboduus. Ruined by the invasion of the barbarians, it was rebuilt by the Slavonians about the year 611; it was enlarged in 723; its population was very great during the fifteenth century, forty-four thousand students attended its university. But the persecution raised against John Huss, who was born in the town,[x] and the revolt of the Hussites, were fatal to the university; it is not attended at present by more than a few hundred students. The different manufactures and articles made at Prague are hats, linen and cotton thread, silk and woollen stuffs, Russian leather, nitric acid and glass.

Other Towns.

It is unnecessary to describe minutely the other towns in Bohemia, all of them are too insignificant to require a detailed account. Iung-Bunzlau, a small town, built in 973, on the left banks of the Iser, by Boleslaw the Second, contains about three thousand six hundred inhabitants, wealthy from their industry and commerce. The small manufacturing town of Reischtadt is the appenage of Napoleon's son. Leitmeritz, a well built town, does not contain more than three thousand five hundred individuals, and the fortress of Theresienstadt in the neighbourhood, commands a small place of a thousand inhabitants. Lippa is noted for its cloth and woollen manufactures, and more glass is made at Kamnitz than in any other town in the kingdom. The famous village of Warnsdorf, the largest of any in Bohemia, and from its industry more important than most towns in the same country, contains eight hundred houses and some fine public buildings. The two thousand three hundred inhabitants of Tœplitz are enriched with the produce of salt springs. Saatz or Zatecs on the right bank of the Eger, is peopled by three thousand eight hundred persons; it was founded in the year 708 by a wealthy Bohemian noble, the count of Schwach. Carlsbad, celebrated for its pins, needles and cutlery, and still more so on account of its mineral water, contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is surrounded by forests and high mountains; according to report, the springs which now constitute its wealth, were discovered while the emperor Charles the Fourth was enjoying the chase; one of the dogs had fallen into a boiling pool, and its cries awakened the attention of the royal party; from that circumstance the value of the water, and its salutary effects, were soon afterwards made known.

Eger, a town of eight thousand four hundred inhabitants, carries on a trade in cotton, linen, and hemp. Pilsen, which is populous, is enriched by its cloth manufactories and its four annual fairs. Pisek is supposed to be the best built town in the kingdom. Butweis contains a gymnasium, an arsenal, and six thousand inhabitants. Tabor, which was formerly a strong place, stands on a height; it was celebrated during the wars of the Hussites. Kœniggreitz, an agreeable town of six thousand inhabitants, was at one time more populous; it has become the metropolis of a diocese; its fortifications were raised by Mary Theresa. It may be added that its schools are attended by pupils from most parts of the kingdom. Such are the principal towns in Bohemia, the others are too insignificant to require notice.

Public instruction.

There are many institutions in Bohemia, of which the object is to diffuse instruction and knowledge. The number of elementary, preparatory, and scientific schools may be sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants; the Jews too have as many schools as they require; nothing more is wanted, than that these institutions should be put under a better management, that the methods of conveying instruction should be facilitated and improved. Several individuals have shown their zeal for the arts, by forming themselves into a society at Prague, and by collecting at their own expense different objects of art, that are deemed useful in improving the taste of the young; an academy too is connected with

[x] History of Bohemia, by Æneas Sylvius.

the society, to which students recommended by the members are admitted. Another society has been founded in the same town for the purpose of encouraging and diffusing a taste for the study both of vocal and instrumental music. Seven hundred and eighty poor students, who desire to devote themselves to the sciences, or the career of instruction, are gratuitously educated at the university; a fund of one million three hundred and thirty-three thousand florins is reserved for that purpose. Prague possesses, besides, the only scientific society in the ancient provinces of the Austrian empire; it holds a considerable rank among the different institutions of the same kind in Europe.

Charitable institutions. The numerous charitable institutions in almost all the towns, may be mentioned to the honour both of the Bohemian government, and the wealthy classes in that country. There are few places of any consequence without hospitals for orphans, the infirm, and the poor. The expenses connected with these places of charity have been estimated at 2,180,000 florins, and the number of persons admitted into them at more than 3300. Many beneficent societies have been formed, which administer at all times food to the indigent, firewood and clothing during winter, and pecuniary advances to work people and different individuals, to whom such advances may be useful. Other societies have been established in the capital for the relief of widows, and respectable persons in decayed circumstances, such as merchants, lawyers, and physicians. Different houses have been built in the same place for affording accommodation to the indigent sick and women in childbed. Funds have been raised for the relief of workmen, who have met with any severe bodily injury, and whose families, but for these funds, must have been left destitute. The most of these institutions are conducted on an excellent plan; those who contribute to them are aware that their money is much better laid out than if it were given in private or indiscriminate charity; it may be said, indeed, that those, whom fortune has enabled to mitigate the calamities of others, are not less distinguished by their judgment, than by their zeal in the cause of philanthropy.

Finance—Army. The revenues of the kingdom amount to more than twenty-five millions of florins; the military force to fifty thousand men, exclusively of the *landwehre*, or militia. The conscription has been long established in the country. A German geographer remarks correctly, that there are few countries which can be more easily defended in the event of a foreign invasion.[7] It may be observed, without entering into military details unconnected with our subject, that it is naturally defended by its mountains, that a hostile army could not advance without great difficulty, indeed, the more numerous the army, the more easily could it be harassed by troops scattered in different parts of the country. The rivers, forests, mountains, and ravines are obstacles which diminish greatly the chances of a successful invasion. But if the advantages which Bohemia derives from its position, are of importance to the inhabitants, they are less so to the Austrian empire. The tactics adopted by the European states, when Napoleon taught them to resist invasions and to defend themselves, might be employed with success in a war against that monarchy.

[7] M. Liechtenstern.

BOOK CXXVI.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Tenth Section.—Description of Moravia and Austrian Silesia.

MORAVIA, or Mœhren, as it is called in Germany, derives its name from the Morawa, a river thus denominated by the ancient Slavonians, but which the present Germans call the March. The province is entitled a county, or margraviate, and politically united with Austrian Silesia. Both these countries shall be separately described in the account of their physical geography. The extent of the first is about eighty-six miles from north to south, and a hundred and twenty-eight from east to west. It is bounded on the west by Bohemia, on the south and the east by the archdutchy of Austria and Hungary, and on the north by Silesia. More than half the country is covered with mountains, which in many places, particularly in the south, enclose agreeable and fruitful vallies. The soil is elevated from five to nine hundred feet above the level of the sea, and it inclines principally towards the south. The March, or the largest river, rises in the Sudetes, flows from north to south, and receives most of the streams that descend from the mountains. It joins the Danube at some leagues from Presburg. Moravia.

Strata of intermediate limestone are situated in the central districts; a great variety of rocks, not uninteresting from their position, are observed on the mountains in the east, the north and the west. Several coal deposites extend through the lower part of a valley, in which gneiss abounds; they are less important, it is true, than the coal mines in Bohemia, but still they are worked with profit in the neighbourhood of Rossitz and Blawon. The geologist may discover fresh water deposites to the south of the coal, they are marked by the frequent occurrence of the fossil wood that has been termed lignites.[a] Different rocks.

The *Alt Vater* rises on the other side of the mountains that separate Moravia and Silesia; from its height probably it has been called the *Old Father* of the Gesenke chain; their summits join those of the Sudetes, which extend to a great distance towards the kingdom of Saxony. From the same lofty mountain may be seen the long and narrow province of Austrian Silesia, that extends from south-east to north-west. The length of it in that direction may be about a hundred miles, and the mean breadth not more than twenty. The Bischofs-kappe, one of these mountains, is about three thousand feet in height; from another, the Hungersberg, a lofty cataract descends. Silesia. Gesenke mountains.

The country on the northern side of the Gesenke chain is higher than any other part of the two Silesias. Mines of gold and silver were at one time worked there; the most productive were situated on the Hackelberg. According to a tradition, the Mongols destroyed in 1421, not only the men who were employed in working these mines, but most of the miners in Silesia. Of late years attempts have been made to open them, but they do not appear to have been attended with much success. Ancient names.

The Austrian province of Silesia has been often visited by geologists; it contains, indeed, sufficient to indemnify them for their labour. On the sides of the Sudetes, Gesenke, and part of the Carpathians, may be observed several small basins, formed of sandstone, Geology.

[a] See the Memoirs of M. Riepl. Annales de l'Institut Polytechnique imperial et royal de Vienne.

schistous argil, coal, argillaceous iron, and porphyry; on the same declivities are calcareous rocks containing different metals, such as lead, iron, and zinc, and also the limestone named muschelkalk, strata consisting partly of argil, salt, and gypsum, argil in which different metals are found, and extensive alluvial deposites.[b] The coal and the sandstone occupy a space of nearly thirty-two leagues. Granite appears on all the high points, but gneiss and micaceous schistus are more common on the lower parts of the mountains. Blue argil abounds in the alluvial lands, it is to that substance that the smooth and level appearance of the Silesian plains must be chiefly attributed.[c]

Ancient inhabitants.

The Quadi, perhaps the most ancient inhabitants of Moravia, were the neighbours and allies of the Marcomanni, who, as we have already stated, made themselves masters of Bohemia. The Quadi are the same people that Strabo calls the Coldui;[d] their history is very obscure until the time of Caracalla, by whom Gaiobomar, their king, was put to death. Tacitus makes mention of them in his annals; he informs us that the Suevi were placed by the Romans between the March and the *Cusus*, or the *Waag*, and that Vannius, or Wann, one of the Quadi by origin, was appointed king over them.[e] The above passage proves the great antiquity of the name of the river, that the Slavonians call at present the Morawa. The Quadi united with the Marcomanni, and were sometimes formidable to the Roman power. Domitian marched against them to punish them for having assisted the Dacii; the Quadi proposed peace, the emperor rejected their conditions with disdain, but after having been defeated, he was compelled to make it on disadvantageous and humiliating terms. The Quadi endeavoured several times to extend their territory beyond the frontiers of Pannonia. Marcus Aurelius, in order to check their invasions, was obliged to station an army of twenty thousand men amongst them. Their history exhibits a series of defeats and revolts, until the time of the emperor Numerian, who gained a decisive victory over them. According to Mentelle, they possessed four important cities; *Eburodunum* (Bria,) *Eborum* (Obruntz,) *Celementia* (Kalmins,) and *Mediostanium* (Znaïm.)

Burii.

Beyond the Marcomanni and the Quadi, says Tacitus, were other less powerful tribes.[f] In the number of these tribes, he includes the Burii, who inhabited the country which forms at present Austrian Silesia. They resembled the Suevi in their manners and language. Ptolemy calls them the Luti.[g]

Moravia erected into a kingdom.

The descendants of these nations founded in the seventh century, the kingdom of Moravia, which then extended to Belgrade; to that country the Slavonians directed their conquests, two hundred years afterwards, and Moravia was joined to the kingdom of Bohemia. It then became a margraviate; but since the reign of Mathias, king of Bohemia and Hungary, in the fifteenth century, Moravia has not been governed by separate margraves.

Slavonians.

The Slavonians, three times more numerous than the Germans, inhabit chiefly the central districts, and the Germans, the mountains. The former are divided into several branches; the *Hannaques*, the *Straniaques*, the *Slowaques*, or *Charwates*, the *Horaques*, or *Poohoraques*, the *Podzulaques*, and the *Wallaques*. The Hannaques derive their name from a small river, the Hannah, and they differ from the other inhabitants in their language, customs and dress; their principal wealth consists in their cattle and flocks. The Straniaques inhabit the districts near the confines of Hungary. The remaining tribes may be easily distinguish-

[b] See the Memoir of M. Manes. Annales des Mines, 1825. [c] Oeynhausen; Versuch einer geognostischen beschreibung von Oberschleseen. [d] Strabo, Book VII. chap. 2. § 3.
[e] Tacitus, Book II. § 63. inter Marcum et Cusum. [f] De Moribus Germanorum, sec. 43. [g] Book II. Chapter XI.

ed from each other, but the Wallaques are the most remarkable of any; they were not originally natives of Wallachia, as one might suppose from their name, which appears to be derived from the Wag, or the Waha, for they were formerly settled on its banks, before they migrated to the western declivities of the Little Carpathians. The Wallaches speak an Hungarian dialect; they wear the Hungarian costume. During the seventeenth century, while immense forests of beech and maple trees covered the mountains, which they inhabit, they carried on a lucrative trade in wood and tinder.[h] Now that the woods have been cleared, they are obliged to devote themselves to agriculture, still, however, they collect the last substance, but in place of exporting, as formerly, a hundred wagon loads every year to Leipsig, more than five or six are not at present sent. The Wallaches are distinguished from their neighbours by their cleanliness. They are brave in war, tolerant in their religion, and strictly honest in the ordinary transactions of life.[i]

Slavonic language.

The Slavonic language, analogous to the Tchekhe, or Bohemian, was corrupted by the different inhabitants that settled in the country. Although it abounds in consonants, it is rich, harmonious, and adapts itself easily in vocal music, to the different intonations of the voice. The literature of the same language is more ancient than the Polish. Its principal monuments are a hymn, composed about the year 990, by bishop Adalbert, the Bohemo-Latin psalter of Wittemberg, written in the twelfth or thirteenth century, the poetic chronicle of Dalemil, which dates from the year 1310, and the translation of the Bible. It was much cultivated by the scholars and learned men in Bohemia, but many of their works were burnt or destroyed during the religious and political wars in the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries. The study of the language has been encouraged for the last twenty years by the Austrian government; and in the course of the same period many original Slavonic works have been printed. Two Slavonic newspapers and three or four literary journals are at present published. A work is now appearing in numbers at Vienna, it is to consist of three hundred ancient Slavonic songs, which have been collected in the different circles of the monarchy.

Dialects.

The different dialects of the Bohemo-Polish, spoken by the different Slavonic tribes, may still be distinguished, not only in Bohemia, but in Moravia and Silesia, although many German words have been introduced into them. The Hannaque seems, from its pronunciation, at least, to be harsh and guttural; the Slowaque is divided into two dialects, the Moravian Slowaque, which is spoken by the Slowaques and the Wallaques, and the Silesian Slowaque, differing principally from the former in the number of its Polish and German vocables; both are said to excel the other dialects in harmony and softness.[k]

Germans.

The German nation is also subdivided into four branches, that are distinguished by the following names, the *Hochloenders*, or Silesians, who inhabit the Gesenke chain; the *Kuhloendlers*, who occupy the eastern part of the country; the *Paganers*, and the *Schoenhaengstlers*, on the eastern sides of the Moravian mountains.

Other nations.

The other people that migrated at a later period to Moravia, are, the Germans, who settled in it during the thirty years' war, the Croates, who are easily known from the other inhabitants in the seigniory of Dürnholm, the French in the seigniory of Goeding, and the Jews in the different trading towns.

Religion.

When Joseph the Second established liberty of conscience within his dominions, many appeared suddenly throughout Moravia, who had preserved in obscurity the doctrines of John Huss, or the principles of Luther and Calvin. The Moravian brothers ventured to show

[h] Ama-dou. [i] See Mittheilungen der Moehrisch-Schlesisch. Gesellschaft, by M. Fichtner. [k] Atlas Ethnographique, by M. A. Balbi.

themselves; they had acted three centuries before that period, an important part in Moravia and Bohemia, but since the reign of Ferdinand, had continued, like the other protestants, under a system of persecution. The Wallaques exhibited in their mountains, the curious spectacle of a people declaring against catholicism, without being resolved to substitute any other worship in its place. Not many years after the decree of Joseph the Second, more than twenty thousand individuals followed publicly the rites of the different protestant churches. Austrian Silesia may be considered in some respects a dependence on the diocese of Breslau, but it contains a great number of Lutherans. The protestant worship is under the direction of the consistory at Vienna, and the catholics acknowledge as their spiritual chiefs, the bishop of Brunn, and the archbishop of Olmutz.

Climate. | The climate of Moravia, notwithstanding its elevation above the level of the sea, is milder than in other countries under the same parallel. The vine is cultivated with sufficient advantage beyond the forty-ninth degree. The greatest height of Reaumur's thermometer may be about 28°, and in some winters it has descended so low as 22° below zero. The mean temperature of Olmutz seems to be about 7° 3′. But the mountains are exposed to a much more rigorous climate than the central districts; thus the harvests are five or six weeks earlier in Moravia than in the mountainous country of Silesia. At Brunn, for instance, the cherries are fully ripe in June, while they do not begin to redden in Silesia before the first days of August. The north-east wind is the most prevalent in the two provinces.

Productions. | The country abounds in game and fish; flocks, poultry, and other domestic animals are very common. Cattle forms the principal wealth of the Silesians, who, although a sober and industrious people are not affluent. The corn harvests in the two provinces are more than sufficient for the wants of the population; there is no scarcity of potatoes, different kinds of vegetables, anise, hops, lint, and flax. The grape and many fruit trees are cultivated with success, but of the latter the walnut is the most common.

Mines. | Various are the mineral productions of the country; gold and silver, it has been remarked, were formerly abundant, but iron and coal are the most profitable at present. Alum, marble, and other rocks are found in many places, and worked with advantage. It ought to be observed, however, that the water in most of the springs in the country is neither wholesome nor agreeable to the taste. Inasmuch as relates to different branches of industry, Moravia is the most important province in the Austrian empire. It is unfortunate for its commerce that the March is only navigable for vessels of a very small tonnage; the inhabitants are consequently obliged to transport almost all their merchandise by land. If communications were opened or facilitated, the greatest benefit might result from them; in its present state, however, the revenue of the country amounts to 7,200,000 florins.

Territorial divisions. | The two provinces of Moravia and Silesia have been considered as forming one since the year 1783; they are divided into eight circles.

Government. | The affairs of government are committed to the states, the deputies of which are divided into four classes, the clergy, nobility, knights, and deputies from seven royal towns. The emperor convokes a general assembly of the states every year, he appoints their president, and at the close of the session, a permanent deputation continues its sittings, and watches over the interests of the province, until the members are again assembled.

Towns in Moravia. | Brünn, or the capital of the province, is situated at the base of a hill, between two rivers, the Schwarzawa and the Zwittawa. It is worthy of its rank from its population, which exceeds thirty-eight

thousand inhabitants. The ancient fortifications were partly demolished, the rest are in ruins, the citadel only remains, and serves at present as a state-prison.

Public buildings.

The ancient convent of the Augustines is now the place where the states assemble; in their hall may be seen the plough, with which Joseph the Second, after the example of the Chinese monarchs, turned up a field in the neighbourhood of Rausnitz. The *Kraut Mark*, or cabbage market, has been considered the finest square in Brünn; it is adorned with a magnificent fountain. The two most remarkable of the nine churches are those of St. James and the Augustines in the *Alt* Brünn, or old town. The first, of a light but bold Gothic architecture, is covered with copper, and contains a great many statues; in the second is observed a silver altar, surmounted with a picture of the virgin, worthy of Cranac's best days. A manuscript of the fourteenth century is preserved in the church of St. James; it contains an account of the siege of Troy, taken from two ancient manuscripts at Athens, written by eye witnesses of the siege.[1]

Public walks.

The glacis has been transformed into public walks. The Spielberg, a hill of eight hundred feet, part of which has been called the Frandzensberg, was formerly a Calvary. A marble obelisk sixty feet in height, consecrated to the glory of the Austrian armies, was erected in 1818 in the midst of the wood near the arid rocks, which crown the Spielberg. These walks command an extensive view, the spectator observes at twelve miles distance, the field of battle, and the village of Austerlitz.

Useful institutions.

Brünn contains several hospitals, schools and seminaries, an agricultural society, another of natural history, and a valuable museum which has been placed in the episcopal palace. The commerce of the town consists principally in the sale of its hats, silk and woollen stuffs.

Neighbourhood.

The burgh of Buchlowitz, about four leagues to the east of Austerlitz, contains a population of thirteen hundred souls; it is known from its sulphureous and mineral springs. The village of Luhatschowitz is situated in the mountains, at a greater distance from the capital; its baths are much frequented, the fountains of Vincent and Armand are surrounded with handsome buildings in the form of temples; many afflicted with rheumatism and cutaneous diseases repair to them every year. The burgh of Tolleschowitz derives its wealth from its vineyards, which yield excellent wine. Some ruins that may be observed in the neighbourhood, are supposed to have been once inhabited by saint Ciryllus, the first bishop of Moravia. The ruins of the first church, which was built by the same bishop, may still be seen at Hradisch, the capital of a district, situated in a fruitful plain, but exposed to the frequent inundations of the March. The town stands on an island in the middle of that river, and contains fifteen hundred inhabitants. Its position has rendered it necessary to erect and keep up thirty-nine bridges, one of which is more than three hundred yards in length. Hradisch was an important fortress in the fifteenth century; Mathias, king of Bohemia and Hungary, besieged it several times without success. Four sabres are deposited in the townhouse, they were given to the city by the king Wladislaw to commemorate the bravery of the citizens. The market place is adorned with a fine statue of the virgin.

The village of Strany on the mountain of Jaworzina, is peopled by the Wallaques, that have been already mentioned; they differ from the other inhabitants in their manners, language and dress: during festivals and holy

[1] The manuscript in the church of St. James is entitled, Liber historiæ Trojanæ, per magistrum Guidonem de columnis de Nessana, de Græco translatus in Latinum. Guido died in 1827: the copy of his MS. was not written by himself, but by a German of the name of Grunhagen, as is proved by the last sentence in the work. Explicit historia seu chronica Trojanorum, scripta per Johannem Grunhagen; *Anno Domini* 1348. See Archiv. fur Geschishte, 1825.

days, the people join in a national or characteristic dance, in which they wield their sabres with great dexterity. From the top of the heights in the neighbourhood of Strany, which form the frontiers of Moravia, a good eye can distinguish at thirty leagues distance the tower of St. Stephen.*

Southern frontiers of Moravia.

The commercial town of Nicolsburg rises in the midst of a plain, near the southern extremity of the province; it contains seven thousand inhabitants, and nearly the half of them are Jews. Znaim, including its three suburbs, a town of the same population, is situated on the left bank of the Taya, in a fruitful country, covered with vineyards. The principal edifices are the court of justice, and St. James's church, remarkable for its fine Gothic architecture. The chapter of Poeltemberg is separated from the town by a deep valley, it belongs to the knights of the cross. Znaim possesses two convents and a gymnasium. The burgesses wear a blue dress, and their wives are distinguished by their high bonnets trimmed with gold lace. The burgh of Eisgrub is also built on the banks of the Taya; at no great distance from it, is a rural castle belonging to the prince of Leichtenstein; the building is not very large, but the park which surrounds it is watered by the river, and laid out with much taste.

Towns in the Moravian mountains.

Iglau on the banks of the Igla, lies in the midst of the Moravian mountains; its population amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants; it has three parish churches, a convent of minorites, founded by Ottocar the second, a gymnasium and a hospital. Some fine paintings and several ancient tombs are contained in the church of St. James. One of the churches that belonged to the jesuits, has been admired for its paintings in fresco. A cemetery shaded with lofty trees is the most frequented public walk in the town.

Trebitsch.

Trebitsch is encompassed with walls, and situated in a deep valley on the banks of the Iglawa; most strangers admire the picturesque arrangement of its houses, the large castle that commands it, its ancient parish church, and the convent of the capuchins. The view from the summit of the Mistkogel, a high mountain, is as fine as it is extensive; the eye reaches to Nicolsburg, and one may observe in succession, rich and fruitful plains, the sad and gloomy valley of the Igla, the ruins of Templestein, an ancient castle in which the well is said to be five hundred yards in depth; on the left bank of the Rokitna, is seen the small town of Kromau, commanded by heights covered with trees, so arranged as to exhibit the appearance of a vast and verdant amphitheatre. Coal is not uncommon on these heights, and the working of it forms the chief occupation of the fourteen hundred inhabitants in Kromau.

Ingrowitz.

A rugged and hilly road leads across the Moravian mountains to Ingrowitz, a small town on the banks of the Swartza; although it does not contain more than eleven hundred inhabitants, it possesses a considerable trade in linen, and serves as a place of residence to the superintendent of the reformed communities in Moravia. Mount Prositschka rises at no great distance from the town; it was there that the ancient Slavonians went to worship their gods; its summit is often obscured with mists before rain, and on that account it has been called the *Weather-glass* by the country people. When the sky is serene, the view from it extends to Kœniggrœtz in Bohemia.

Olmutz.

Olmutz was the ancient capital of Moravia; its fortifications, which are still in good repair, and its citadel, which was the prison-house of Lafayette, render it an important place in time of war. The population, together with that of the five suburbs, amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants. The town is well built, provincial courts are held in it, and it is the residence of the archbishop. The lyceum and the other schools

* Handbuch fur reisende in dem œsterreichischen kaiserstoate: by Rudolphus Von Jenny.

are numerously attended, the charitable institutions are managed with great care. The public fountains, remarkable for their elegance, reflect much credit on Donner, the sculptor. The townhouse is the finest edifice, the lyceum possesses a library of fifty thousand volumes, a valuable collection of natural history, and another of philosophical instruments. The people show the place where the emperor of Austria had an interview with Napoleon a short time before the battle of Austerlitz. Several manufactories have been built at Olmutz, and it carries on an extensive trade in cattle with Poland and Russia.

Antiquarians think it probable that the town may be the same as the one which Ptolemy designates by the name of Edurum. | Ancient name.

The March, which waters Olmutz, descends towards the south, and traverses the plains on which Kremsier, the residence of the archbishop in the summer season, and perhaps the finest town in the province, is situated. Nothing can exceed the magnificence of the castle appropriated by the prince of the church; galleries of paintings, scientific collections, libraries, gardens embellished with fountains and cascades, correspond with the architecture of the edifice. The population of the town is not much greater than four thousand souls. Prerau on the Betschwa, though still less populous, is one of the most ancient towns in the country; within its walls may be observed a very large building, which belonged formerly to the templars. Weiskirschen, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, at a short distance from the Betschwa, is visited by the strangers that resort to the baths at Tœplitz about a mile and a half distant, a place that must not be confounded with Tœplitz in Bohemia. A precipice four hundred feet in height, is situated near the thermal springs, and a marsh of mineral water extends below it. | Kremsier.

Such are the principal towns in Moravia; but Jœgernsdorf rises at the base of the Buzberg, on the other side of the mountains that separate the province from Silesia. It stands on a fruitful valley, it is encompassed with walls, and depends on the dutchy belonging to the prince of Leichtenstein. The mountain that commands it, on the summit of which a large church has been erected, is often visited by botanists. The town contains four thousand seven hundred inhabitants. | Austrian Silesia.

Troppau, a strong place with a population of ten thousand souls, is well built, the streets are straight and broad; the public buildings are the ancient townhouse, a theatre, several churches and the ducal castle of Leichtenstein. It contains different manufactories, but its trade consists principally in soap. Teschen, a town of six thousand inhabitants, is situated on the side of the Carpathians, a country covered with forests and pasturage. Weichsel, a village to the south-east of the last place, stands on a valley, remarkable for a cataract, which descends from the height of two hundred feet; the springs that supply it, are the sources of the fine river that traverses Poland. Lastly, Bielitz on the frontiers of Gallicia, is noted for its cloth manufactories; it contains five thousand inhabitants, and not fewer than the half of them are employed in making cloth. | Troppau.

BOOK CXXVII.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Eleventh Section.—Archdutchy of Austria.

The country about to be described, is mostly enclosed by the different possessions of the Austrian empire, an empire extending over a number of

nations, foreign to each other, governed by the same sovereign, but according to different laws. The inhabitants in some possessions lately added to Austria, attach no meaning to the word patriotism; passive obedience is considered their only duty; in others, that obedience may be attributed to fear rather than to ignorance; the hope of independence cheers them, their most earnest desire is to throw off the yoke. The former having submitted to a despotic government for ages, know no other blessing than repose, have no other wish than to increase their wealth, and by that means, their temporal enjoyments; the latter, jealous of their independence, are apt to suppose they have preserved it, because their countries are entitled dutchies or kingdoms. All, in short, are more effectually separated from each other by their manners, customs and language, than by the mountainous chains which bound them.

Position. The archdutchy of Austria is limited on the west by Bavaria, on the north by Bohemia and Moravia, on the east and the south-east by Hungary, and on the south by the dutchy of Styria.

Surface. The superficies of the country may be about seven hundred and eight German square miles.[a] It is divided by the Ens into two nearly equal parts; the one situated on the left of the river is styled the *government above the Ens*, and the other on the right, *the government below the Ens*.

Mountains. The mountains in the south of Bohemia, and the Norican Alps, enclose a large and fruitful plain, which the majestic Danube traverses from west to east. Branches of these mountains extend to the banks of the river; they form a great many vallies, and render the country one of the most agreeable and romantic in Europe. The heights of the Manhart, and the chain of the Greiner-Wald are not very lofty; but others, which extend to the south of the Danube, rise to a great height, and some are covered with eternal snow.[b]

Geological structure. It may be remarked that the mountains which extend from Vienna to the calcareous chain of the Alps, particularly the Thomasberg and the Meyersdorf, contain several deposites of coal, which are accompanied with argillaceous sandstone, calcareous rocks, quartz and schistous marl mixed with marine shells and the impressions of plants. Coal is likewise found at the base of the Alps, in the valley of the Ens.[c]

On the east of the same river, lands of a different nature, and formed at different epochs, contain mines of iron, lead, silver and coal. The lofty district of Monasberg is covered in several places with alluvial deposites.

[a] According to M. Max. Freid. Thielen, it is equal to 708 6-10th German, or nearly 8503 English square miles.

[b] The height of the principal summits in the Norican Alps, has been already mentioned; but there are several lofty mountains on the frontier of the archdutchy, which may be specified.

On the east or above the Ens.

The Hochhorn	10,667 feet.
The Dachstein	9,285
The Hoher Kreuzberg	8,726
The Gradstein	8,598
The Grosser Priel	8,580
The Kopper Kehr Stein	7,734

On the west or below the Ens.

The Œtscher	6,062 feet.
The Wechselberg	5,574
The Huthwisch	2,716

[c] See the Memoir of M. Riepl, Annales de l'institut polytechnique de Vienne, Tome II.

The number and height of the mountains on the west of the Ens, render the neighbourhood of Salzburg, and the country of Berchtesgaden, more interesting to the geologist. They form part of the Norican Alps, they are composed of granite, sandstone or psammites and calcareous rocks. Quartz, garnets and other precious stones, magnetic ore, marble, rock-salt, feldspar and serpentine, as well as most of the metals, are found at different elevations. The calcareous mountains seem to be loftier than the granite, and the illusion is partly occasioned by their steep and rapid declivities. But without having recourse to the operations of the barometer, it is not difficult to discover that the granite mountains appear lower, merely because they are seen from a greater distance; indeed at the approach of winter, they are always first covered with snow.

Vegetation.

The calcareous mountains are much more interesting to the botanist, on account of their abundant and varied vegetation. The cause of so many plants may be attributed to their geological structure, and particularly to the comparative lowness of their elevation. Lichens and almost all the cryptogamia are nowhere observed, while the schistous and granite mountains are covered with them; in the first, springs and streams are very rare, in the others they are abundant, and the noise of the cataract is often heard amidst precipices, steep rocks and low vallies. The land rises gradually from north to south in the country of Salzburg, and if the level of the lowest plains be compared with the highest summits, (for instance the Wisbachshorn,) the difference will be found to be greater than ten thousand feet.[d] A belt of land that extends from east to west along the whole length of the archdutchy, may be observed to the north of Salzburg; it is composed of different rocks, and a sort of plastic argil, well adapted for earthen ware. It rests on calcareous rocks, to which succeed strata of argillaceous schistus, that are supported on micaschistus and other rocks of the Alpine chain.

Lakes.

Extensive marshy lands and several well known mineral springs appear on the east and the west of the Ens. Different lakes and marshes are situated in the part of the archdutchy above the same river. The two most important are the Atter, which may be about 7288 *iochs* or Austrian acres in superficial extent, and the Traun, which although not more than 3,777, is better known than the other, from its picturesque situation and the beauty of the neighbouring districts.

Rivers.

The greatest rivers tributary to the Danube, are the March on the north, and the Ens on the south—the ancient *Anisus*, of which the course may be about a hundred and twenty-eight miles, and the Traun that issues from a small lake in the Norican Alps near Aussée, traverses the lakes of Hallstœdt and Traun, and falls near Lambach in the form of a cascade from rocks sixty feet in height. It is navigable for more than seventy miles of its course, neither is its navigation interrupted by the falls, for a canal about three hundred yards in length communicates with the river.

Ancient inhabitants.

Having thus described the position, and given a short account of the archdutchy, it may be right to mention its former inhabitants. The lands between the Danube and the Alps, were, according to Ptolemy, inhabited by the Ambilici and the Ambidrani, who were tribes of the Norici. The country was known to the Romans by the name of Noricum. The districts round Vienna were included in Upper Pannonia, and the left bank of the Danube was peopled by the Norici and Quadi. The history of the Norici or Noricans is very uncertain, but there are reasons to believe that they were governed by kings, before they submitted to the Romans. Noricum became a Roman province under the reign of Augustus; it was considered of sufficient importance to be divided

[d] See Salzburg und Berchtesgaden, by Francis Antony von Braune.

into two parts; the one nearest the Danube was called *Noricum ripense*, and the other, near and beyond the Alps, was styled Noricum Mediterraneum.

Ancient Towns. | The principal towns on the banks of the river, were *Boyodurum*, at present Ilzstadt, *Laureacum*, (Larch,) *Aredate*, and *Claudinium*, the sites of which are unknown, *Ovilabis*, (Wels,) and *Invavum* (Salzburg.) While the Romans were powerful, the Quadi, Marcomani and other neighbouring nations respected the Norici; but they were at last defeated by the Goths; Alaric devastated their country, which was afterwards laid waste by the Suevi and the Herules.

Name of Austria. | About the sixth century, the *Avares* or *Avari*, a people originally from the vallies of the Ural, invaded and took part of the archdutchy; it is not improbable that they founded a kingdom, to which other nations in the west gave the name of Œsterreich or the eastern kingdom; Charlemagne made himself master of it, and divided it into several counties. The frequent incursions of the Madjars orHungarians, induced Henry the Fowler to erect it into a margraviate in the year 928, of which the investiture was bestowed on his nephew Leopold. Frederick Barbarossa changed it into a dutchy. It was again conquered in the thirteenth century by Ottocar the Second, king of Bohemia, but that prince having refused to pay tribute to Rodolphus of Habsburg, then elected emperor, a war ensued, in which Ottocar was slain. The dutchy thus passed to the descendants of Rodolphus, who have since acquired the rank and importance that are attached to the house of Austria. Such was the origin of the family, which courtly genealogists have traced to the time of Noah's ark, or at all events to the days of the Trojan horse.

Confusion of people. | The inhabitants are so mixed by the invasions of which Austria has been the theatre, that it is difficult to discover the shades by which they were formerly distinguished. Some Slavonians, however, are found on the frontiers of Moravia, in the country above the Ens. The descendants of the Norici exhibit proofs of their ancient race in the country below the Ens. Their language differs from that of the other inhabitants. The people in the district of Salzach show by their customs and character, the remains of a distinct origin; the most of them are honest and industrious.

Language. | The Austrian German, less pure than that which is spoken in the centre of Germany, forms one of the Danubian dialects. A Bavarian dialect is spoken in the archdutchy, and different varieties of the German in the rest of the country. All of them abound in diminutives, but none of them are so soft or harmonious as the Bavarian.

Climate. | The southern part of Austria is higher, and therefore colder than any other district; the grape arrives seldom at maturity. The climate is milder in the valley of the Danube, and the air is every where pure and wholesome. The rain that falls annually varies from twenty-four to thirty inches, and the most frequent winds are the west, the north-west and the east. The climate below the Ens is temperate, but variable; Reaumur's thermometer never descends lower than nineteen degrees, and does not ascend higher than twenty-nine. There may be about twice as many fair as rainy days throughout the year.

Diseases. | Although Austria is not exposed to the ravages of epidemic diseases, the mortality is, however, more considerable than in the other possessions of the Austrian empire. The number of deaths compared to the population is in the ratio of one to thirty-four. The *cretins*, those beings both morally and physically degraded, are very numerous in the mountains near Salzburg.

Agriculture. | It has been already said that the Austrians are laborious, and that the desire of increasing their wealth is observable among many in every class of society. For these reasons, agriculture and industry are carried to a degree of perfection, which appears to be incom-

patible with the general but incorrect notions concerning the indolence of the people. The country, it must be admitted, consumes more than it produces, but the insufficiency of the grain harvests in the governments above and below the Ens, ought to be attributed rather to the quality of the soil, than to the ignorance of the husbandmen. Fruit trees are common on the left bank of the Ens, and dried fruit forms a branch of exportation; but the orchards on the right bank of the river are more abundant and more valuable; it is believed too that the finest vegetables in the empire are produced in the neighbourhood of Vienna.

Wines.

If the climate be ill adapted to the success of the vine in the districts above the Ens, the culture of the same plant in the rest of the country forms the most important source of agricultural wealth. The best wines are those of Mauerbach, Kloster-Neuburg, Feldsberg, Giuzing, Roetz and Bisamberg. Lint, flax and saffron are cultivated with advantage in the country below the Ens, but as the lands do not yield rich pastures, many cattle are not reared, indeed the number is insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The forests have been long neglected, fire wood is consequently found to be too expensive for the poorer classes. The meadows in the province above the Ens are so abundant that more fodder is raised in the government than in any other part of the Austrian empire; and although the coldness of the climate compels the inhabitants to consume a great quantity of wood, a considerable time may elapse before it be necessary to introduce coal, or before the forests which cover the mountains are exhausted.

Animals.

Lower Austria is amply supplied with some domestic animals, and although there may be a deficiency in cattle, it is admitted that the breed of sheep has been improved, and that the horses are strong and well made. The excellence of the pastures in Upper Austria has led the inhabitants to imitate the Swiss, they bestow the same care on their flocks and dairy. The forests in that country afford shelter to different sorts of game, wolves, bears and chamois. But as most of the woods have been cut in lower Austria, game has become less common in that government.

Industry.

The mines in the archdutchy are worked with much intelligence; an author affirms that if it were not the interest of government to spare fuel, Upper Austria might supply all the hereditary states in Germany with salt.* The salt mines of Hallein produce nine hundred thousand quintals. The district of Salzach, in mineral wealth perhaps more important than any other, furnishes every year three hundred marks of gold, seven hundred and twenty of silver, three hundred and eighty quintals of copper, four hundred and ninety of lead, ten of arsenic, and fifty-three of vitriol. Lower Austria derives from its mines thirty-four thousand hundred weight of iron and two thousand five hundred of alum; the lead mines containing silver seem to be nearly exhausted, but the coal mines are much more profitable than ever they were at any former period; their annual produce exceeds two hundred and thirty thousand quintals.

Manufactures.

On the left of the Ens, many individuals are engaged in working iron; they are more numerous indeed than those employed in working all the other metals; it furnishes the means of subsistence to fifty thousand families in the district of Traun. The manufactures consist principally of woollen stuffs, linen and muslin. But the people in Lower Austria are still more industrious, in that respect it surpasses all the other possessions of the Austrian empire. Cotton mills, linen, cloth, riband and paper manufactories, foundries, iron, leather and glass works, are to be seen in many parts of the country. A geographer estimates their produce at eighty-five millions of Austrian florins.†

* Hassel's Geography. † Leichtenstein's Geography.

Commerce. It might be naturally inferred from so great a variety of manufactures, that the commerce throughout the country must be considerable, almost the whole, however, is concentrated at Vienna. The metropolis, from its being the residence of the court, from its position, and from its extensive credit, has long possessed the principal commerce of Austria. Linz, Salzburg, Steyer, Neustadt-Kreims and some other towns serve as intermediate stations to Vienna. The value of the goods exported from it, cannot be valued at less than fifteen millions of florins, the imports amount to the same sum, and the transit trade circulates a revenue of five millions. It would be needless to inquire, after the example of some authors, whether the commercial balance, as it has been termed, is in favour of Austria; because it is evident there must be always a balance between the exports and imports of a state, since in every case an equivalent value must be given for the articles imported. Goods are conveyed by water on the Ens, the March, the Traun, but most of all by the Danube; many vessels loaded with cargoes from a hundred and fifty to two hundred tons may be seen on the last river. Merchandise is transported by land along eleven principal roads, three of which in Upper Austria form a total length of three hundred, and the rest of more than six hundred miles.

Religion. The archdutchy exhibits in a religious point of view, as well as in many others, that contrast between privileges and restrictions which characterizes countries, where prejudice and caprice are substituted for justice and right. It is not intended to throw any censure on the government, but merely on the mass of the inhabitants. They showed themselves under Joseph the Second, incapable of deriving any advantage from the institutions and privileges which that monarch was disposed to grant them. It is not however the less singular to observe in the same province, religious liberty established on one side, and intolerance on the other. As in the other states of the empire, catholicism is the prevailing worship, and the one that has most partisans in Lower Austria; there Greeks protestants and Jews enjoy equal protection, they can repair to their churches, consistories and synagogues; while in Upper Austria, which contains twenty-four thousand lutherans, who are allowed the free exercise of their religion, Jews are not tolerated.

Constitution. It is known that the differences which exist between the liberties and the privileges of some provinces depend on the conditions that were stipulated at the time of their union with the crown. The country below the Ens, was originally the great dutchy of Austria; the country situated on the other bank of the river was annexed at a later period. To the great dutchy were attached important privileges during the long continuance of the German empire; it is from these privileges, and as kings of Bohemia, that the Austrian emperors possess the right of presiding over the Germanic confederation. But according to certain treaties, that have existed for nearly four hundred years, the power of the sovereign is modified by the states, which the emperor at his coronation oath binds himself to maintain.

States. These states, it has been observed, are organized in the same manner as in Bohemia; they consist of the high clergy, the nobility and the deputies from some privileged towns; they are divided into a general assembly and a permanent commission, they can only be convoked by the sovereign. Assemblies of the same sort are held in Upper Austria, the dutchy of Salzburg has its separate states.

Courts of justice. Upper Austria is divided into five circles, and Lower Austria into four. In the first, a supreme court sits at Linz, and takes cognizance only of the causes of the nobles and privileged classes; three hundred and fifty-five inferior tribunals decide the causes to which plebeians are parties. Six hundred and twelve tribunals have been established for the same purpose in Lower Austria, while the nobles are only amenable to

the supreme court at Vienna, and the common people can appeal to it against the decision of the other tribunals. Two councils of censors are held, the one at Lintz, the other at Vienna; it is the duty of the members to examine not only all the works published in the country, but such as are imported from foreign states.

Revenue.

The revenues of Upper Austria amount to 750,000*l.*, and of Lower Austria to nearly 2,500,000*l.* All the individuals from the noble to the peasant, are removed beyond the reach of poverty; they may be said to be affluent, when compared with the people in other countries. The advocates of absolute power have attached great weight to that fact, which proves merely that under one despotic government, the nobles do not abuse their privileges, and the people are protected by the impartial administration of the laws; in other words, that frugal and industrious men amass wealth, wherever the right of property is respected. But is man like the lower animals? has he no other enjoyment than that of satisfying his physical wants? has he no other desire than that of living in obscurity or repose? If the Austrians are now happy under a paternal sceptre, the time may perhaps come, when they will envy the destinies of some states in Germany.

Neighbourhood of Vienna.

Vienna and that part of the Danube which separates the town from the suburbs are situated in the centre of a fine and fruitful plain. Some travellers commend whatever they see in foreign countries, others, particularly the French, blame whatever does not recall the customs and neighbourhood of Paris; it is necessary to avoid both errors, in endeavouring to describe the large valley round Vienna. Towards the north, the eye tries to follow the different branches of the river, whose broad and rapid course, together with the vessels that cover it, embellish and vivify the rich picture. Islands covered with trees, add to the beauty of the landscape in the same direction. The surface of the water opposite Vienna is about four hundred and eighty feet above the level of the sea. The limits of the basin on the east, are formed by heights covered with houses, which unite with those that bound it on the south. The basin becomes broader on the west, and extends to the Manhart mountains, covered with forests; on the north the eye wanders over a plain, the extent of which it cannot measure; the heights on the south are crowned with villages and country houses, surrounded by verdant woods. The lofty summits behind these heights, have from their distance a bluish tint, of which the different shades are insensibly lost in the azure of the sky.

Vienna.

Vienna, in German Wien, was founded in 1142 by Henry the First, duke of Austria; it is at present the largest city in Austria. It was so called from a small river which crosses it, and throws itself into the Danube. The capital is about four hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea; its circumference, including the different suburbs, is not less than three and a half German, or twelve English miles. Thus, in superficial extent it is nearly equal to Paris, although the two towns are very different in point of population, for Vienna does not contain more than two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. The real town stands nearly on the centre of the ground which all the buildings occupy; it is encompassed with ditches and ramparts, and communicates by twelve gates with thirty-four suburbs, which are certainly extensive, but cultivated fields are situated in some of them. Encroachments however are every day making on the fields, indeed more than six hundred new houses have been built since the year 1826. Vienna no longer resembles the town in which the French have several times entered victorious; were those who had seen it ten years ago to return at present, they might be apt to suppose it a different place. It is long since the bastions and the ramparts have been adorned with fine walks; and since the *Burg Bastey* and the *Bastey of Rothenshurm* have been embellished with elegant buildings; from the *Burg*

or town-wall, on a sloping terrace may be seen two gardens laid out with much taste; the one belongs to the court, and the other to the public; in the last has been placed an admirable statue of Theseus, the work of Canova.

The city.

The irregularity of the buildings in the interior of the city indicates its antiquity. None of the eighteen squares are very large, the hundred and twenty streets, though narrow and crooked, are clean and well paved. The houses are large, high, and substantially built; the mean number of inhabitants to each house exceeds forty persons, but some of them contain many more. One house, for example, is inhabited by four hundred tenants, and it yields a rental of sixty thousand florins, or nearly 7000*l.* The ancient burgess hospital, now private property, is let to two hundred families at a rental of a hundred and twenty thousand florins. The most of the squares are adorned with fountains or other monuments. The Hof or the largest square is also the most regular; it is decorated with bronze statues, founded by Fischer. A colossal equestrian statue of the emperor Joseph the Second, also in bronze, decorates at present the square of Joseph. A fountain, in which the leaden figures represent the four principal rivers in the archdutchy, has been erected on the Neumark. But the Graben's square, which stands near the centre of the town, is more frequented than any other; in an enclosure, are observed two fountains and marble figures representing the trinity, perhaps the best work of Strudel. The principal shops and warehouses are situated in that square and in the Kohlmark, a large and well built street that leads to it.

Buildings.

The bourg, an imperial palace, is, without doubt, the finest edifice in Vienna; several collections are at present contained in it, they consist of minerals, many objects of art, curiosities and medals; they are supposed to be more valuable than other collections of the same kind in Europe.[g] The emperor inhabits that part of the Bourg which has been called the Schweitzenhaf. The palace, like the Tuilleries, unworthy of a sovereign, is surrounded with many public buildings; on one side is situated the ancient imperial chancery, adorned with many statues, forming four groups of a colossal size; on the other, the imperial library, containing three hundred thousand volumes, six thousand specimens of early printing, and twelve thousand manuscripts;[h] at a greater distance are the riding-school, a very elegant building, the two guard rooms, and the theatre of the palace. The other buildings that may be mentioned, are the palace of the duke of Saxe-Tekhen, the mint, the chancery of the court, the war office, the Bohemian and Hungarian chanceries, the townhouse, the palace of the archbishop, the bank, the custom-house, the university, the chamber of the states, and the two arsenals. In one of the last buildings, the town's arsenal in the Hof, is preserved the head of the great vizier Kara-Mustapha, who commanded the Turkish army at the blockade of Vienna in 1683, and was strangled at Belgrade in the following year. In the great arsenal are to be seen part of the dress worn by Gustaphus Adolphus at the battle of Leutzen, and the balloon, which, in consequence of the observations made from it, enabled the French to gain the battle of Fleurus.

Number of houses, &c.

The number of houses, it has been observed, is rapidly increasing, but according to a late census, they were equal to

[g] Among the antiquities are a great many bronze figures, statues, and jewels of different kinds, five hundred Etruscan vases, four hundred ancient lamps, and thirty-two thousand gold and silver medals.

[h] In the same library are eight thousand volumes of engravings, and two hundred and seventeen volumes of portraits. Among the manuscripts are several Mexican hieroglyphics, which some future Champollion may perhaps decipher, manuscript of Dioscorides, with plants on vellum, painted in the fifth century, the original of the senatus consultum by which the Bachanalia were regulated, A. R. 567; lastly, Tasso's manuscript of Jerusalem delivered.

seven thousand and fifty; there were, besides, a hundred and twenty-three of a better description, belonging to different nobles, twenty-nine catholic churches, one reformed and one lutheran, two Greek churches, two synagogues and seventeen convents,—fourteen of men and three of women.

Principal churches.

The three principal churches are those of St. Peter, the Augustines, and the metropolitan church of St. Stephen; the first is built after the model of the famous one at Rome, and the cupola is covered with copper; the second was finished in the year 1330, it contains the mausoleum of the great dutchess Christina, a monument that cost 20,000 ducats, and in which it is easy to discover the genius and talent of Canova; the hearts of the deceased members of the imperial family are preserved in a chapel adjoining the same building. The church of St. Stephen, a fine Gothic edifice of the thirteenth century, is three hundred and forty feet in length, two hundred and twenty in breadth, and eighty in height. The tower may be about four hundred and thirty feet above the ground, it supports a bell, weighing more than eighteen tons, and made of the cannon taken from the Turks, after they raised the siege of Vienna. The same building is adorned with thirty-eight marble altars, it contains the tomb of the emperor Frederick the Fourth, of several cardinals, prince Eugene, and the celebrated Schpisshammer, a physician, a poet, an orator, historian, and philosopher.

Suburbs.

The town communicates by thirty-nine bridges with Leopoldstadt and the suburbs on the left bank of the Danube. Leopoldstadt, situated on an island, is exposed to the inundations of the river. A fine walk, in which are planted different rows of trees, that terminate in a grove, serves as a place of meeting to more than thirty thousand persons, on St. Bridget's day—the tutular saint of the parish. The quarter of Jaegerzeile, on the same island, is inhabited by the higher classes; embellished by many fine buildings, a theatre, and most of all, by the Prater, a magnificent walk, in which may be observed coffee-houses, various places of amusement, panoramas, riding-schools, and schools of natation. At no great distance from it, is situated the Belvedere, built by prince Eugene, now the property of the emperor, and remarkable for its gallery of valuable paintings.[1] The large military hospital and the church belonging to it, are situated near the entrance to the suburbs of Landstrasse. The church of St. Charles, more regular than any other in Vienna, adorns the suburbs of Vieden; it was built by the emperor Charles the Fourth, to fulfil a vow he had made, while the plague desolated the city in the year 1371. The suburbs of Vienna, although irregular, are finer than the town; they seem almost to be formed of palaces and gardens, but the streets, it must be admitted, are ill-paved, the stones used for the purpose are too small, and on that account disagreeable to walkers.

Places of instruction.

It is unnecessary to enumerate all the places of public or private instruction in Vienna; it may be sufficient to mention the most important. Whatever has any connexion with the useful arts, the different kinds of industry, and commerce, is taught in the polytechnic school. The medical and surgical schools are well attended; twelve hundred students attend the university, and the lectures are delivered by seventy-nine professors. The university library consists of a hundred thousand volumes; there are chairs of anatomy, chemistry, physics, and the different sciences. The oriental school was established in order to form interpreters, and facilitate the relations between Austria and the Porte. Besides these schools, others have been instituted for the children of the nobility. The fine arts are taught in the imperial academy, and in

[1] In the right side of the gallery are three hundred and twenty-five pictures by the great Italian masters; on the left a hundred and ninety-five of the Flemish school, and in the upper story, three hundred and fifty-one of the ancient and modern German schools. In one of the rooms is observed a fine Mosaic painting, representing the last supper by Leonardi da Vinci.

other seminaries the application of these arts to different products of industry. To these may be added the academy of engineers, and the musical school,[k] a normal school, a theological seminary, of which the masters are zealous and well-informed ecclesiastics, five colleges, and a protestant university, that is ill attended, because the wealthier protestants prefer to educate their children at home; lastly, there are sixty schools for the lower orders, and most of them are conducted on an excellent plan; in one of them, the school of Neubaugasse, they are gratuitously taught; they learn reading, writing, arithmetic, and drawing; corporal punishment has been abolished; the girls are instructed in needlework, and kept separate from the boys. Other charity schools for the children of artisans are open on the Sundays, from nine to eleven o'clock in the forenoon. The daughters of the wealthier classes are educated in convents, but an imperial seminary has been founded for the daughters of officers. The principal schools have their collections, or museums, by which the arts and sciences that are taught, are illustrated.

Charitable institutions. The charitable institutions are not less numerous, the most important may be enumerated. The hospital, or infirmary, in the suburbs of Alser, is remarkable for its large dimensions and the great cleanliness with which it is kept. It contains seven courts planted with trees, a hundred and eleven wards furnished with two thousand beds, and receives annually from fifteen to seventeen hundred patients. The foundling hospital, the imperial orphan hospital, and the deaf and dumb institutions are creditable to the capital.

Houses of correction. Mendicants dare not appear in the streets of Vienna; a workhouse has been built for all the beggars in the province, and another for vagrants, who are not accused of any crime; but the latter are not allowed, as in France, to have any communication with criminals.

Places of amusement. There are in Vienna, as in every other great town, many places of amusement, many ways in which the idle may pass their time. Five theatres are open the greater part of the year, and in the fine season, the public walks and gardens are crowded. The number of coffee-houses amounts to seventy, and the taverns or ordinaries to three hundred.

But the capital is more important as a manufacturing town than any other in the Austrian empire; more than sixty thousand individuals find employment in different branches of industry. The manufactures consist of silk and other stuffs, gold and silver lace, ribands, hardware goods, needles, philosophical instruments and different kinds of paper. The carriages of Vienna are prised in most parts of Germany; there are besides, several porcelain works, and one of them employs a hundred and fifty painters and fifteen hundred workmen. The cannon foundry and the manufactory of arms are supported by government. The average number of muskets that issue every year from the imperial manufactory, is said to be equal to thirty thousand. The other articles made in the same town are, steel ornaments, jewels, watches, excellent musical instruments, and different chemical products.

Commerce. The capital is thus the central point of Austrian commerce, and of the circulation required to maintain it. The produce of its industry, which brings annually a revenue of two millions four hundred thousand florins, gives rise to an exportation sufficient to furnish cargoes to six thousand boats, and merchandise for nearly two millions of wagons. The canal of Neustadt, finished in 1803, serves as a communication between the Danube and the metropolis; boats ascend by means of

[k] It is stated in the Weiner-Zeit (1825,) that a hundred and seventy-five pupils of both sexes attend the musical school. It contains a library consisting of historical and theoretical works relative to music, a great many manuscripts on the same subject, and a very extensive collection of ancient and modern musical instruments.

locks to the basin in front of the townhouse. Three fairs are held in the town, and the number of mercantile houses of every kind amounts to nearly a thousand.

Fortifications and walls are still kept up round the central part of the town, but Vienna is not a place that can offer much resistance in the event of a siege; the garrison does not exceed ten or twelve thousand men. Although important from its population, it has given birth to few distinguished men; but among them may be mentioned some that have acquired a name in German literature, such as Schrœkh, Collin, Alzinger, Mastalier, and the historian Incofer, known from his ecclesiastical annals of Hungary, and by a Latin work, published under a fictitious name,[1] entitled Monarchia Solipsorum, a satire against the Jesuits, which was for some time popular in France.[m]

Manners.

The luxuries and delicacies of the table are carried to a greater excess at Vienna than at Paris, but they may be had at less expense in the Austrian than in the French capital. Nobles from every part of the empire settle there, and contribute by their wealth to increase its commerce and industry. The indolence and ennui of the rich render many places of amusement necessary, but none are so much frequented as the theatres. If the pieces acted on the stage, are not admired by the other Germans, the fault must be imputed to the dramatic censors appointed by government. Much has not been done in literature, still less in science; music forms the only exception, it has been cultivated with great success. There are few catholic towns, where the people are so punctilious in observing religious forms and ceremonies; no class of the community, no rank or order, are free from credulity, superstition or bigotry. But although the inhabitants are ignorant, they are not corrupt, the men are honest, and the domestic virtues are cherished in many families.

More liberty, greater encouragement given to knowledge, by impressing a salutary impulsion on the capital, might produce a great and beneficial change in the whole population of Austria. The vigilance of the police borders on oppression; some of them hold the office of dramatic censors, and they exercise it in a very captious manner; indeed, it seems to be full time that the office should be abolished, and the police reformed. The emperor said a few years ago, when returning from the theatre after a first representation, that he was well pleased at having seen the comedy, as he was convinced the censors would condemn it. The truth of the remark was afterwards confirmed.

Sieges of Vienna.

The stranger observes, not without interest, the bastions that protected the town against the attacks of the Turks. But in later times Vienna was twice taken by the French. The example of so many other capitals that yielded to a victorious chief, may console the Austrians, if any confound success in battle with national honour. The same town was taken in 1241 by Frederick the Second, duke of Austria, and by the emperor Rodolphus the First, in 1297. It was vainly besieged by the Hungarians in 1477, but obliged to surrender eight years afterwards to Mathias, king of Hungary and Bohemia.

Vienna resisted the Ottoman troops in 1529 and 1683. The recollection of the last siege has been handed down to the present inhabitants. No event was ever likely to be more fatal to Germany, and perhaps to Europe. Kara Mustapha, son-in-law and great vizier of Mahomet the Fourth, excited by the ambition of adding the west to the humiliating yoke of his master, traversed Hungary and entered the Austrian plains with an army of more than two hundred thousand men, and a train of artillery in which were three hundred cannon, very effective engines at that time. Charles the Fifth, duke of Lorraine, compelled to give way to such an overwhelming

[1] In Holland, in the year 1648.

[m] It was translated into French in the year 1722.

force, retreated in haste to Vienna. Fear pervaded the inhabitants, and the emperor fled secretly and ingloriously from the capital. It is in such moments that kings feel the misfortune of not being beloved by their people. Leopold having suddenly taken the resolution of flying with his family, passed along the fugitive crowd that encumbered the road to Lintz. But it was soon discovered that he was only one among a multitude of sufferers; he and his family were obliged to pass the night in a wood, and the darkness was dispelled by the flames which preceded the Ottoman hordes, and with which Hungary had already been desolated. Terror was at its height in Vienna, all must have been lost but for one man, and that man was John Sobieski. Kara Mustapha had encompassed the town; the count of Starenberg burnt the suburbs, armed the students, and resisted with a feeble garrison of sixteen thousand men; but after twenty-three days' siege, the garrison weakened, without provisions, obliged to fight and to extinguish the fires occasioned by bombs, were reduced to despair. The enemy had taken the counterscarp, when Sobieski appeared with seventy-four thousand men; he examined the position and encampments of the vizier; gave the signal of battle, and the formidable army of Mustapha was cut to pieces. Never was so great an alarm followed by so brilliant a triumph; the booty was immense, Vienna was saved, Christendom freed from the danger that menaced it, by the coolness and intrepidity of a hero.

Antiquities. | The ancient town called *Castra Fabiana* or *Faviana*, and afterwards Vindobona, rose into notice under the first emperors; the tenth Germanic legion was stationed there in the time of Ptolemy; Marcus Aurelius died in the same place; Gallian gave it up to the Marcomani after having married the daughter of their king. Aurelius united it again to the empire.[a] While some alterations were making about two years ago in the botanical gardens, several antiquities were discovered, such as coins, different pieces of money, vases, bricks, and other relics, from which it appears that the site of the garden was formerly within the enclosure of Vindobona. When the chapel of the Capuchins was enlarged, a chapel that served as a place of interment for the emperors, there were discovered much about the same time a Roman tomb, fragments of funeral vases, and other articles, which render it probable that the road from Vindobona to Rome passed near the present convent.

Neighbourhood. | We have already mentioned the beauty of the neighbouring country; the castles and country houses on the heights are so numerous that it would be no easy matter to describe those only which belong to the imperial family. Schœnbrunn was built by Mary Theresa. It is remarkable for the extent of the buildings, the fineness of the gardens, and the profusion of rare and valuable plants in the conservatories. Laxenburg, a Gothic castle belonging to the emperor, is encompassed with ditches and other works that give it the appearance of a small fortress. The interior is decorated in the same style as the exterior, and contains many curiosities of the middle ages. It forms a singular contrast with its modern gardens, and even with the regularity of the burgh at the base of its walls.

Villages. | The village of Maria-Hitzing near Schœnbrunn has been considered the finest and most picturesque in Austria. It possesses a theatre, and is visited on account of its baths. Penzing is known from its riband manufactories, and Meidling from its mineral waters. Several country houses are situated near these villages.

Towns. | We may quit that part of the country where the houses of the wealthy rival each other in elegance, where their grounds, laid out with great taste, give to the basin of Vienna the appearance of an im-

[a] See the excellent work of the Baron of Hormayer, Vien seine, Geschichte und s, eine Denkvürdigkeiten.

mense garden. The towns now to be mentioned are situated on the plains of Lower Austria. Kloster-Neuburg, on the banks of the Danube, deserves to be noticed, not on account of its population, which does not exceed three thousand two hundred inhabitants, but on account of a magnificent convent belonging to the Augustines. The town is decorated with a fine church, in which the ducal crown of Austria is deposited; it has besides a seminary, a valuable library, containing more than four hundred manuscripts, and a collection of natural history and medals.

Baden, at some leagues to the south of the capital, is commanded on the east by verdant hills, while a fruitful plain extends to the west. The population does not amount to three thousand persons, but its baths, the efficacy of which in rheumatic affections has been acknowledged, are so much frequented that more than five thousand strangers resort to them in some seasons. Walks have been made in the neighbourhood, and the parks and pleasure grounds of the different proprietors are open to strangers. | Baden.

Neustadt or Vienerisch-Neustadt has been considered, after the capital, the finest town in the archdutchy; the number of its inhabitants, according to M. Thielen, is equal to eight thousand three hundred.* It is adorned with three large squares, the houses are well built, the streets are straight and regular. It possesses several seminaries, and a military school attended by five hundred pupils. The canal, which has been already mentioned, passes from the town, and serves to supply Vienna with firewood, coal, and stones for building. | Neustadt.

The summit of the Schneeberg is about five leagues to the west of Neustadt. That mountain is visited by a greater number of strangers than any other in Lower Austria. It is covered with mists nine months in the year, and none need ascend it, unless the weather be serene and cloudless. After having mounted a short distance on the most frequented road, the spectator observes below him, a narrow and deep valley, part of which is occupied by a lake. Having passed the region of trees, he arrives at a sort of platform, on which a house has been built for the accommodation of travellers that may wish to remain during the night. Lichens are the only plants that grow above the inn, the remaining part of the journey is not without danger, it is necessary to climb naked rocks, and to avoid frightful precipices. The height of the summit is such as to command a most extensive horizon. The eye wanders over as fine a panorama as can well be imagined; the wooded heights of the Werner-Wald and the Manhart appear on the north; Vienna seems like a village, and the Danube like a stream in a verdant plain. It is not difficult to count all the towns, and although the distance is so great as to make them resemble so many points on a geographical map, there is no summit from which a stranger can at once form a more correct notion of the wealth and importance of the archdutchy. The view towards the south is bounded by the chain of the Alps, a chain more than a hundred and twenty miles in length; on the west are seen the mountains in Upper Austria, the Salzburgh Alps, and those of the Tyrol, while the vast Hungarian plain extends on the south-east to the neighbourhood of Raab and Ofen. Of all the towns that may be observed in ascending the canal of Neustadt, those only have been mentioned which are situated in that direction; the description of Upper Austria may therefore be completed by giving an account of the towns that are seen from the Schneeberg. | Schneeberg.

Bruck, situated in a valley to the right of the Danube, and on the banks of the Lettha, may be mentioned on account of its custom-house, and a large square watered by a fountain. Haimburg | Towns seen from the Schneeberg.

* Alphabetisch Topographisches Postreise-Handbuch fur den Œster-reichischen Kaiserstadt, &c. by M. F. Thielen. Vienna, 1827.

contains three thousand inhabitants, and carries on a greater trade in tobacco than any other town in Austria. Krems and Stein are seen towards the west, on the left bank of the Danube; the one is peopled by three thousand six hundred inhabitants, and the other by fifteen hundred. They are separated from each other by an alley of trees, and two rows of houses, which may probably account for a popular saying; *Krems and Stein are three towns.* Krems carries on a considerable trade in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; they are employed in different branches of industry. But the commerce of Stein lasts only a part of the year, or while the river is favourable for navigation. A castle now in ruins rises above Durrenstein, it was there that Richard *Cœur de Lion* was unjustly confined. Moelk, although only a burgh, is remarkable for its large convent, inhabited by Benedictines, for its gymnasium, library and collection of antiquities. *Saint Pelten*, a place of four thousand inhabitants, and the chief town of a diocese, is situated between the Danube and the Werner-Wald; in a fruitful plain covered with cultivated fields, gardens and rich meadows. Other places, though less important, may be shortly enumerated. The people of Awischofen are employed in making glass. Aloosdorf carries on a trade in saffron, and Mistelbach in different kinds of grain; it is peopled by three thousand inhabitants. Aleiben is noted for its royal sheep-folds, which are supposed to be the largest in Austria. Maria-Taferl, a village built on a height, is not less celebrated for its religious processions, more than a hundred thousand pilgrims visit it every year. Riesenberg was the birth place of the famous composer Hayden, and Wagram or Teusch-Wagram stands on the plain where the French were victorious in 1809.

Towns in Upper Austria.

The capital of Upper Austria is a place of some importance; Lintz, so called from Lentia, its name in the time of the Romans, contains a population of twenty thousand souls. The town is neither so populous nor so well built as the suburbs. The ornaments in the great square, are not perhaps accordant with correct taste; a pillar erected by Charles the Fourth to the holy trinity rises in the centre, on the right and left are two fountains, the one decorated with a figure of Neptune, and the other with a statue of Jupiter. The public buildings are nowise remarkable, but the town possesses different places of education, several charitable institutions, and important manufactories. Although the mountains in Bohemia protect it from the north winds, Reaumur's thermometer descends frequently to fourteen or fifteen degrees. The west winds, which are very common, are disagreeable and unwholesome.

Steyer.

Steyer, on the Ens, a town of nine thousand inhabitants, rises in a valley, watered by a small river of the same name. The Burg, an old castle belonging to the prince of Lamberg, is the only edifice worthy of notice, and its fountains are considered its greatest ornaments. The utmost activity prevails in it, almost all the inhabitants are engaged in trade or in some department of industry. It is there that iron appears to be of greater utility than gold; many thousand hands convert the metal that is brought from the mines into every variety of form. Numerous hammers are moved by the Ens, which serves, likewise, to transport the merchandise of the town. Steyer exports files to Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and the Levant, razors for less than a florin the dozen to the east, penknives for fifteen or twenty florins the thousand to Moravia, Silesia, and Gallicia, shoemaker's instruments to Germany, Switzerland and France. A great many iron wagons are sent to Steyer from forty manufactories at the base of mount Priel; these as well as other articles are exported to different countries in Europe.

Ens.

The town of Ens is situated near the confluence of that river with the Danube; it contains three thousand inhabitants, and if it be true that it formed one town with Lorck, the Roman Laureacum, it must have been at that time a place of great importance. The princi-

pal ornament of the town is an old tower built by the emperor Maximilian.

Gmunden, on the lake of Traun, contains a population of three thousand souls; the town is pleasantly situated and neatly built, the government offices of the mines are its finest buildings. The beauty of its position depends principally on the lake, which is nearly eight miles in length, and more than one in breadth; its waters are of a greenish colour, but they become nearly black during stormy weather. | Gmunden.

Garsten, a benedictine chapter, situated in the vicinity, was founded eight hundred years ago. The church is not less remarkable for its architecture than for its fine paintings and numerous ornaments; within its walls may still be seen the tomb of Ottocar the Fourth. But the chapter cannot be compared with that of Krems-Munster, founded in the year 777 by Tassilo, duke of Bavaria. The edifice, the observatory, the large library, and valuable collections of natural history and philosophical instruments, are in unison with the magnificence of the interior, and the elegance of the gardens; they render the monastery superior to any other in Germany. The neigbourhood is remarkable for its springs; they deposite on the plants a sediment of calcareous matter in such abundance that it is used in building. | Garsten.

The commerce of Halstadt is confined to the produce of its salt mines, which yield every year about fifty thousand hundred weight. A lake, of which the depth has never been measured, is situated near its walls; it is equal in length to eight thousand four hundred yards, and in breadth to eleven hundred; its waters abound with excellent fish. It has been supposed that Branau, which now contains three thousand inhabitants, stands on the site of the Roman Bundunum. The small town of Montzee is built on the banks of a lake nearly five miles long, two and a half broad, and at the centre four hundred yards in depth. The cataract of Bochsfall, falls from a rock four hundred feet in height, at no great distance from the village of Bischofshofen. | Halstadt.

Salzburg, one of the finest towns in the archdutchy, is the only other place of which it is necessary to give some account. It has been called at different times, *Juvavium*, *Hadriana*, and *Petena*. It was ruined by Attila in the year 448, and afterwards rebuilt by the Bavarian dukes, at the request of St. Rupert. The Salzach separates two regular and well-built quarters, a rampart encompasses the town, and three suburbs extend beyond the entrance. It contains fourteen thousand inhabitants, but the population corresponds ill with the size of the town; deserted streets, and uniform houses, built after the Italian style, give it a gloomy aspect. The principal entrance, cut through a rock, is about a hundred and fifty feet in length, and from twenty to twenty-four in breadth. A marble statue of fifteen feet, representing Saint Sigismond, is placed on the summit of the entrance. A large fountain adorns one square, and another, that of the cathedral, is surrounded by arcades. The church was built after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, and a much admired statue of the virgin stands on the principal front. Salzburg gave birth to the famous Paracelsus, his ashes repose in the cemetery of Saint Sebastian. The remains of ancient Roman baths, from which many valuable antiquities have been collected, are situated near the hospital of St. John. Salzburg is the only fortress in Upper Austria; the climate is very variable, and on that account unwholesome. | Salzburg.

The Austrians are sober, faithful in their engagements, particularly in their duty to their sovereign. Like plants, they may be distinguished by the nature of the soil, at least the difference is apparent between the inhabitants of the wine and grain countries. The natives of the plains are strong and muscular, those in the mountains are light and active. | Character of the people.

Revenue. The importance of the revenue might be inferred from what has been said of the industry that prevails in the country. It amounts in Lower Austria to 26,000,000 florins, but in Upper Austria it does not exceed 8,000,000.

BOOK CXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Germany—Twelfth Section—County of Tyrol, and Dutchy of Styria.

Snow-covered mountains and arid rocks are the first objects that the traveller observes on entering Tyrol and Styria. The narrow and sinuous vallies in the Tyrol unite with the wildness of a natural, the riches of a cultivated country; in Styria the plains are much larger, particularly in the south and the east; in both the climate is most variable.

Possession of the Tyrol by the dukes of Austria. Tyrol derives its name from an ancient castle near Meran, on a mountain that commands the Adige. The country passed by inheritance to the dukes of Austria in the year 1363. It is bounded on the north by Bavaria, on the west by Switzerland, on the south and the east by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, Illyria, and Upper Austria. According to Blumenbach, its surface is equal to five hundred and twenty German, or six thousand two hundred and forty English square miles.

Appearance of the country. The two sides of the Rhetian Alps, which form the continuation of those in Switzerland, make up the greater part of the Tyrol. To have a notion of the country, one must imagine mountains apparently as high as Mont Blanc, that none have ever attempted to ascend, dismal precipices, lofty cataracts, glaciers of several leagues in extent; on one side the frozen north wind, on the other the sultry blast of the sirocco.

If the traveller be placed near the sources of the Inn he may observe on the right a chain less extensive than the others, which bears the name of Arlberg, or the Eagle mountains; hence the north-west part of the province has been denominated Vorarlberg, or the country in front of the Eagle mountains. Another and higher chain extends from west to east, and forms what the ancients called the Rhetian Alps, its name was derived from the Roman province of Rhœtia. The continuation of the chain in the same direction was styled the Norican Alps, because the lands on both sides made up the Roman Noricum; they terminate at the confines of Styria and Austria. A chain that extends from the sources of the Mur to the extremities of Styria, has received the name of the Styrian Alps.

Glaciers and rivers. Tschernowand is next to Orteles, the highest summit in the Rhetian Alps.[p] The most extensive glaciers are the Gebatsch and the Rofner. The rivers that rise from the Arlberg, are, the Isar, the Lech, the Iller, and the Inn. The Etsch, or the Adige, which throws itself into the Adriatic gulf, and the Drave, which unites with the Danube, after having traversed Illyria and part of Hungary, take their rise from the glaciers in the great chain.

Rocks. Many primitive rocks are situated both on the southern sides of the Rhetian Alps, and in the valley of the Adige; a distinguished geologist has made important observations on the singular arrangement of the calcareous rocks. They are formed by the substance called

[p] It is upwards of twelve thousand feet in height.

dolomia, which consists of magnesia and carbonate of lime; but nothing, indeed, can be more surprising than the inaccessible heights and bold forms that these rocks assume near the valley of Tassa; they appear to surpass what the imagination can conceive.[q] M. de Buch concludes that the white granular and almost friable limestone had been compact, coloured, stratified, and filled with organic bodies, before the porphyry which supports it had, by penetrating into the magnesia, destroyed the organic remains and changed its characters. The porphyry has experienced so great shocks as to have raised into the air the colossal masses that surmount it.

It is unnecessary to enter into the original views of so great a geologist as M. de Buch, but it may be added that they appear to be very probable, for the volcanic substances which characterize the porphyry, seem to connect it with igneous products. M. de Buch, however, goes further, for he supposes all the mountainous chains in the country to have been modified by similar shocks; that opinion may be afterwards confirmed by other phenomena. Our limits prevent us from examining more minutely the geological formation of the Rhetian Alps. Their elevation, and the account already given of the country round Salzburg, prove that all the rocks which may be considered primitive, are contained in them.

Lignites.

According to a geological professor whom we have had already occasion to quote,[r] coal is found in the mountains of Styria, but the deposites in the valley of the Mur, which might be worked with profit, appear to be lignites rather than coal. They lie in the midst of sandstone, argil, and marl mixed with shells, and these substances encompass and support the intermediate mountains in the country. The large valley is filled with deposites of the third formation.

Plants.

The vegetable riches of the Tyrol mountains are well known to botanists; they find on them many leguminous, cruciform, and composite plants, *Archides labiates*, *Cytisi*, *Genistæ*, *Euphorbia*, and *Loti*. The air is embalmed by the fragrance diffused from the *Silene nutans*. The *Lantsch*, near Grœtz, at the extremity of the calcareous heights in Styria, affords shelter to plants, which appear to be for ever removed from the reach of the botanist. The woods that cover its summits are the only places where the *Delphinium intermedium* grows, it reaches to the height of five feet, and charms the eye with its fine blue flowers. The only *Peltaria alliacea* that flourish in a wild state are found on the sides of the same mountain.

Mineral springs.

Ferruginous waters have been discovered in different parts of the Tyrol, but no warm mineral springs.

Animals.

The oxen, cows and horses are small, but of a good kind; goats are more numerous than sheep, and different kinds of game are very common. Wolves, wild boars and bears haunt the forests, the clefts in the rocks afford shelter to marmots, and the chamois finds refuge on the highest summits, or in places where the hunter cannot approach.

Ancient inhabitants.

Little knowledge has been obtained concerning the people that inhabited Tyrol before the time of the Rhœti. They were composed of different tribes, the *Vennonii* or *Vennones*, whom Ptolemy and Strabo mention,[s] and the *Brixantes*, whose chief town was probably built on the site of Brixen; Pliny informs us that they emigrated from Etruria. It may be concluded that they were obliged to leave their territory, as it is very improbable that a nation would renounce voluntarily so fine a country as Etruria, to settle in such a country as Tyrol. The Rhœti were subdued by the Romans in the time of Augustus, and their territory received the name of *Rhœtia Prima*, the lands of the Vendelici were called *Rhœtia Secunda*.

[q] M. de Buch, Memoirs of the royal academy of Berlin, January 1822, February 1823.
[r] M. Riepl, Professor of Natural History in the Polytechnic Institute of Vienna.
[s] Strabo, Lib. IV.

Metals. Different metals are found in the Tyrol, but not in such quantities as to be of much value. Thus the gold collected annually does not exceed a hundred marks; silver is also scarce, what is obtained must be abstracted from lead. The copper is supposed to be more malleable, and, consequently, harder, than in other countries; but iron is more common than any of the metals. The other substances that may be mentioned are cobalt, zinc, arsenic, sulphur and salt. The salt mines are the continuation of those in Salzburg, and one of them near Hall yields every year twenty-five thousand quintals.

Agriculture. Although the revenue which government derives from the mines may be inconsiderable, the people contrive to gain a subsistence by them. Agriculture has been brought to a great degree of perfection; the Tyrolians use their lands to the best advantage. Much labour and care are bestowed on the soil; vegetable mould is transported to high summits; the grass which grows on the sides of steep declivities, is collected for the cattle, even the atmospheric action by which rocks are decomposed, is rendered profitable to the husbandmen, who convey these remains to cultivated fields. The stranger observes not without amazement the Tyrolian peasant with a basket on his head, descending inaccessible rocks by means of a rope and a stick, to the bottom of a precipice, in order that he may gain a few feet of land, and devote it to agriculture.

Vineyards. The hills favourable to the vine are covered with plants; it is true that the wine which they produce does not keep a long time, but although it may on that account be unfit for exportation, it forms the materials of an inland commerce. The vineyards are most numerous in the valley of the Adige; they cover the heights in the neighbourhood of Brixen and Tramin, those near the latter town are considered the most valuable. The Tyrolian cultivates fruit trees, but the forests are much more important, he exports timber for building to Venice.

Population. But although the people be as industrious as possible, the country cannot furnish the means of subsistence to seven hundred and sixty-two thousand inhabitants.[1] The people must find employment elsewhere, they must have recourse to other pursuits besides agriculture. Some have no other wealth than their flocks, but it could hardly be imagined that the birds which have been transported from the Canaries to Europe, where they are prized both for their notes and their plumage, form by no means an insignificant branch of trade. The people are compelled to gain a livelihood in any way, and they do not disdain to wander in foreign countries, and to earn a subsistence by selling canaries. There are few manufactories in Tyrol, but almost every Tyrolian is a workman or manufacturer. Many for want of a better employment travel as pedlers through the most distant countries, and return in old age with enough to enable them to pass the rest of their days in their native land. At six years of age the Tyrolian quits his mountains, sets out for the fair of Kempten in Bavaria, and renders himself useful by herding geese or cattle; at a later period he migrates as a mason, carpenter or miner; thus more than thirty thousand individuals leave their country every year. Some preferring a hunter's life, traverse their mountains, endure all sorts of fatigue, and expose themselves to the greatest dangers to attain their prey; others wander in quest of medicinal plants, which they learn from their infancy, and know as correctly as the ablest botanists.

Among those who remain at home, some execute different works in wood with great skill; the vast forests in the Vorarlberg supply them with the materials of making wooden shops, and even houses, of which the different pieces are numbered, and transported to the lake of Constance, and from thence to neighbouring countries. It seems as if the Tyrolians

[1] Such is the number of inhabitants according to the calculation of M. Thielen. See his Manual, Vienna, 1827.

were naturally mechanics; ingenious instruments, such as may supply the want of hands, are moved by the streams that water their vallies; wheels fashioned for that purpose, are set in motion at different distances. Do they require flour, or stand in need of oil? as every individual provides in some respect for his own wants, there are neither millers nor oil mills, but at the neighbouring stream, corn is ground, and the oleaginous plants are pressed. A German traveller declares that he has seen a child rocked in his cradle by means of a wheel made to revolve by a stream.[a] While the men are engaged in different branches of labour, the women are not idle, some knit stockings, others make goat skin gloves, embroider muslin, or plait straw, which is manufactured into hats. But manufacturing industry is confined to the making of a few articles; thus velvet is made in some places, and carpets in others, particularly in the burghs on the valley of Lientz. The transit trade between Germany and Italy forms a more important and extensive branch of commerce.

Character.

Frankness, fidelity, loyalty and love of country are the virtues that distinguish the Tyrolians. Averse to the conscription, because friendly to independence and liberty, none fight with greater bravery in defence of their country. Not corrupted by the usages of large towns, sincere in their domestic relations, peace and gayety reign in their families. Devout, but also superstitious, they must have a religion that attracts by its ceremonies, that speaks to the imagination as well as to the heart; they people the summits of the mountains, and the gloomy forests which encompass them, with supernatural beings, spirits, demons and wizards. Such being the case, it is not wonderful that there are no protestants in Tyrol; all the inhabitants, with the exception of eight or ten Jewish families, are catholics.

Constitution.

The Tyrolians enjoy more political liberty than the people in any other Austrian province. Government ratified their ancient privileges in 1816, and granted them a constitution better adapted for their wants. While the people in other countries subject to Austria, are represented by the clergy, nobility and deputies from a few towns, the Tyrolian states are not only composed of members belonging to these orders, but also of others elected by the peasantry. The people of Vorarlberg possess other prerogatives, in which the rest of the inhabitants do not participate.

Military force.

The conscription has been abolished, but government has found that measure an additional security against a foreign invasion, for every Tyrolian becomes a soldier in time of war. The people are hardy, active, and accustomed to fatigue; few armies can have much chance of resisting them, when they rise simultaneously to defend their country. They furnish only to the government that protects them, four battalions of light armed troops. Although no custom-houses are erected on the frontiers, the revenue is considerable, it amounts to more than two millions five hundred thousand Austrian florins.

Towns and Villages.

There are in the county of Tyrol, twenty-two towns, thirty-six burghs and three thousand one hundred and fifty villages. Some of the villages are as populous as the towns, but the greater number are small and insignificant. Bregenz, situated in Vorarlberg, on the banks of the lake of Constance, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity; the remains of Roman buildings are still seen near its ancient castle. The village of Achenrein derives its wealth from its foundries and iron works; the laminated copper and white iron that are sent from these works, yield a clear profit of sixty-five thousand florins. Inst, a burgh of three thousand inhabitants, on the banks of the Inn, exports canaries to the remotest countries in Europe; the trade is said

[a] M. Rohrer. See also Voyage dans le Tyrol by M. de Bray.

to produce annually more than 4800*l.* Scharnitz, on the frontiers of Bavaria, is the ancient Roman town of Porta Claudia.

Capital. | Innspruck, or rather Innsbruck, which signifies a bridge on the Inn, stands in the middle of a valley, formed by mountains from six to eight thousand feet in height, and covered with snow even in the months of May and June. It is the capital of Tyrol. Although the town be small and ill built, the suburbs consist of modern houses,—the residences of the nobles and the wealthy. The palace situated in a square adorned with a bronze equestrian statue of Leopold the Fifth, the court church containing the tombs of twenty-eight distinguished personages, and a monument to the memory of the emperor Maximilian, and lastly, the large and spacious townhouse, are the only public buildings that can be mentioned in the capital. The celebrated globe of Peter Anich, a Tyrolian shepherd, who became an eminent geographer, is preserved in the hall of the university.

Hall, Schwatz, &c. | Hall, which lies below Innspruck, is the chief town in the district of the salt mines; it contains four thousand two hundred inhabitants; its extensive salt works are five thousand feet above the level of the sea. Schwatz, one of the largest burghs in the province, is peopled by more than seven thousand four hundred inhabitants, two thousand of whom find employment in the mines within its territory, which produce a great quantity of iron, two thousand five hundred quintals of copper, and three thousand five hundred marks of silver. Zierl, another village on the Inn, is commanded by steep heights and rugged rocks, from which the emperor Maximilian the First made a narrow escape. The prince, ardent in the chase, advanced so far that he must have perished, had it not been for the coolness and intrepidity of an attendant. The people tell the story, and show the place where a cross forty feet in height, has been erected to commemorate the event; but superstitious, and fond of the miraculous, they believe that the emperor was saved by an angel.

Sterzing, a town of two thousand inhabitants, was called *Urbs Stiriacorum* by the Romans;[x] it carries on a considerable trade in iron and wines. Botzen on the Rienz, appears rather like an Italian than a German town; the valley on which it stands, is covered with vineyards and fruit trees, adorned with country houses, and bounded by lofty trees that rise in the form of an amphitheatre. But the interior of the town does not correspond with its appearance at a distance, for the streets are dirty, crooked and narrow. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals.

Trente. | Although the inhabitants give the name of fortifications to walls ten feet in height, *Trente*, or, as it is called in Germany, *Trient*, could hardly resist an attack in time of war. Broad and regular streets, well built houses, fine paintings in the churches, and a celebrated university, render it like an Italian town; indeed, the illusion would be complete, if its fifteen thousand inhabitants spoke the Italian language. Trente is well known on account of its council, which lasted from the year 1545 to 1563. The mountains that rise on both banks of the Adige, are not the lowest in the Alps. The climate is excessively warm in summer, and intensely cold in winter.

Roveredo. | Roveredo, situated in the pleasant valley of Lagarina, carries on a considerable trade in fruits and silk. The town, originally small and ill built, was improved as the population increased; it contains at present more than twelve thousand inhabitants. Pieve, Castello and Cinte are villages of which the trade consists in pictures. Brentonico exports the greenish talc used by painters, and known by the name of *terra di Verona.*

[x] See Handbuch fur reisende in dem Œsterreichischen Kaiserstate, by M. R. Jenny.

Styria.

The dutchy of Styria is bounded by the kingdom of Illyria, the archdutchy of Austria, and the kingdom of Hungary. It may be equal in superficial extent to three hundred and ninety-nine German, or four thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight English square miles. Several important chains are situated in that mountainous region; on the north the Norican Alps, on the east the Styrian, and on the west a branch of the Julian Alps. The highest mountains are those in the north, and the lowest are others in the opposite direction or the south; so that the country is thus divided into Upper and Lower Styria.[7] The principal rivers are the Ens, the Mur and the Drave. The basin of the Mur is larger than any other; that river receives more than a hundred feeders; it turns ninety-eight flour mills, forty-three saw mills and sixty fullers' mills. Its declivity is so great as to give it almost the velocity of a torrent; for the same reason the ice never remains any length of time; the oldest inhabitants do not recollect to have seen it frozen. Fish abounds in all the rivers, but particularly in the Mur; although carp are not so common, trouts, umber, pike and barbel are taken in great numbers.[a] The lakes are numerous, but none of them are very large. What has been already said concerning the geological structure of the principal chains, renders it unnecessary to recur to the subject; but some account may be given of the ancient and present inhabitants of the country.

Ancient inhabitants.

The Romans comprehended under the name of Noricum, a great part of Styria. The Norici were governed by a king, when their country became a Roman province in the time of Augustus. According to Ptolemy, Noricum was inhabited by several tribes. The *Ambisontii* possessed the west and the north, the Ambidrani, Ambilici and principally the Norici were settled in the east and the south. The hordes of Alaric made themselves masters of the country, and their chief wished to erect there the seat of his empire; but he pursued the course of his conquests, and the Suevi, Herules and Huns succeeded him in Styria. It was for a long time subject to Bavaria, but the emperor Conrad the Second made it a margraviate in the year 1030. Raised into a dutchy by Frederick the First, it passed in 1186 by right of succession to the house of Austria; separated from Austria, it was again divided in 1232; lastly, it was conquered by Ottocar the Second, king of Bohemia, but Rodolphus of Habsburg having been raised to the imperial throne, took possession of it, and it has since continued an Austrian province.

Character of the inhabitants.

The country, it has been seen, was the theatre of frequent wars during the middle ages; but it is still easy to distinguish two sorts of inhabitants, the Germans and the Wendes, a people sprung from the Slavonians. The first forms a population of about six hundred thousand individuals, and the latter of two hundred thousand; they reside chiefly in the circles of Cilly and Marburg. They differ in their language and character from the other inhabitants. The German Styrian or the native of Upper Styria is strong and well made, honest, frank and industrious. The Wende Styrians, or the natives of Lower Styria, are weak in body, frivolous, dissipated and superstitious.[b] The greater part of the population adheres to the catholic religion; the number of pro-

[7] The following Styrian mountains have not been mentioned in the tables in the preceding volume.

Eisenhut	7,676 feet
Upper Grimming	7,546
Stang Alpe	7,140
Kempel	4,798
Schœkel	4,778
Erzberg	4,590

[a] M. Schmtz. See also Steyermark Zeitschreib, 1821. [a] Marianus, Topographia Styriæ. [b] Hassel's Geography.

testants amounts hardly to three thousand. As to the Jews, they are not permitted to reside in the dutchy.

Climate. The air is keen and often very cold in the mountains of Upper Styria; but the temperature in the vallies is warmer than in most other Alpine plains. The mean temperature at Grœtz is from seven to eight degrees of Reaumur, and the height of the barometer about twenty-seven inches. The climate of Lower Styria is so mild that the grape arrives at maturity; the wines may be drunk soon after they are made, the most of them are of a good quality, and some not inferior in strength to the Rhenish wines.

Agricultural produce. The grain harvests are not abundant, but the lint is remarkable for its length and fineness. Vegetables, fruits, and leguminous plants flourish, and the forests are so extensive that their surface is supposed to be equal to half of the whole country. The lands are fruitful and well cultivated in the vallies; the cattle in the mountains are of a good kind; indeed, they are considered the best in the Austrian empire; in every district the sheep-folds are numerous, and the country people rear, besides, a great quantity of poultry. The sportsman finds the red partridge, quails, grouse, different kinds of game, and flocks of chamois on the mountains. If the herds and flocks have diminished within the last twenty years, it must be attributed to disastrous wars and additional taxes,—the necessary consequence of these wars.

Mines. The riches of the country consist principally in its mines; the Romans were supplied from Styria with excellent iron, and that metal is still obtained in such abundance that it may be considered inexhaustible. Styrian steel is better than any other in Europe. Silver, copper, and lead, coal, and rock salt are obtained in different parts of the country, and it is to the metals obtained from the mines that the industry of the inhabitants is principally directed. There are more than thirty-six scythe manufactories in Styria, and its exports are diffused over Austria, Hungary, and even the Ottoman empire; they may be estimated at one million eight hundred thousand florins.

Constitution or government. Styria is divided into five circles, of which the chief towns are, Graetz, Bruck, Judenburg, Marburg, and Cilly. It is governed like most other provinces under the Austrian empire. The members of the states form three classes; the upper nobles, among whom are included the bishops; the petty nobles, and the deputies of towns and burghs entitled to be represented in the assemblies. The country furnishes several regiments of infantry and a certain number of men for the cavalry.

Towns, Villages, &c. In that mountainous region which reaches to the extremity of Styria, the stranger may form some idea of the wealth and population of the dutchy by surveying the principal towns and inhabited places that extend from north to south. The burgh of Aussee is situated near a lake, and at the junction of three rivers which form the Traun. The produce of several salt mines that are worked in its neighbourhood, exceeds a hundred and sixty thousand quintals. Not far from the village of Mirnitz is situated a cave, worthy of notice from its extent, sinuations, the stalactites that cover it, and the fossil bones formerly held in veneration by the peasantry. Eisenerz, a burgh, of which the church was founded by Rodolphus of Habsburg, is surrounded by mines from which more than two hundred and sixty thousand hundred weight of iron is obtained every year.

Zell. Zell, or Maria Zell, towards the north-east, on the frontier of Styria, has been termed the Loretto of the country; it is certainly more frequented by pilgrims than any other place in the Austrian empire. The church is perhaps the finest, and without doubt the largest in Styria. The organ is not considered inferior to any other in Germany; the large pulpit is formed of red marble, the chapel has been enriched by

the offerings of pilgrims; the adored image of the virgin is placed on a silver altar, and the gate that leads from the church to the chapel is made of the same metal. The gold, silver, and other valuable articles deposited in the treasury, attest the pious offerings of the hundred thousand pilgrims that repair every year to the shrine of the virgin. Bruck, on the Mur, is the Metropolis of a circle, and the inhabitants are employed in working slate quarries and productive mines within its territory. The capuchins have a convent in its neighbourhood. On the same river and above Bruck, is situated Leoben, one of the best built towns in Upper Styria. The preliminaries of the peace between France and Austria were signed within its walls in 1797. Judenburg, situated above Leoben, although the chief town of a circle, contains only fifteen hundred inhabitants. It was a place of some consequence in the time of the Romans; during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it was principally inhabited by Jews, hence the origin of its present name. As its great trade was then in the hands of the Jews, their prosperity brought against them the hatred and persecution of the Christians, who succeeded in expelling or extirpating them about the year 1312. The town was almost wholly consumed by fire in 1807, and the inhabitants had much difficulty in repairing their losses; the Franciscan convent has been converted into an inn, and the ducal castle into barracks. Rohitsck appears to have been once a Roman town, at all events many ancient coins, vases, and other articles of antiquity have been found in it. Strangers frequent it on account of its mineral waters, and it exports annually more than eight hundred thousand bottles to Poland, Hungary, and Italy.

Grœtz, or Gratz, the metropolis of a circle, and the capital of the province, is situated in the fine valley of the Mur. Its population amounts to forty thousand inhabitants, the greater number of them reside in the suburbs. According to a German traveller, Herren street is the largest, Sporr street, the most inconvenient; Schmidt street, the most noisy, and Murr street, the most crowded.[c] The public buildings are, the cathedral, the theatre, the townhouse, and the government palace, in which the states meet. Grœtz contains ten parish churches and twelve chapels of ease, five convents of men and two of women. Several hospitals may be mentioned among the charitable institutions, one for sick, another for women in labour, a third for the insane, and a fourth for orphans. A university, a drawing academy, a commercial seminary, gymnasia for boys, and boarding schools for girls, are the principal places of education. A library containing a hundred thousand volumes and three thousand five hundred manuscripts, the botanical garden, the museums of natural history, medals and antiquities, and the *Johanneum*, an institution so called from the name of the prince its founder,[d] are considered the most valuable scientific collections. A Calvary, a church, and several chapels are situated on a height in the neighbourhood. The town is a place of considerable importance from its commerce and manufactures. | Grœtz.

Radkersburg, which might be surnamed the romantic, stands on an island in the middle of the Mur. The fortifications are in bad repair, and insufficient to protect it against the frequent inundations of the river. The village of Rieggersburg is built on an eminence, at no great distance from the last town. Its ancient castle is remarkable for its picturesque situation, for the fortifications cut in the rock, the deep ditches, and the relics of the middle ages that are contained in it. It was of late rendered illustrious by a man of genius who paid a tribute of affection to its ancient proprietors.[e] | Radkersburg.

The burgh of Leibnitz was perhaps the ancient Mureola, a town mentioned by Ptolemy; at least the opinion is rendered probable by the nume-

[c] M. Rud. de Jenny. [d] The archduke John. [e] M. de Hammer, the orientalist.

rous antiquities and sculptures that have been found at different times, and the Roman inscriptions that may still be seen on the tower of Skauberg, which was built in the thirteenth century.

Marburg. | Marburg, at the confluence of the Drave and the Mur, contains five thousand inhabitants. Although the metropolis of a circle, it possesses no public building of any consequence; it carries on, however, a considerable trade in corn and wine. The small town of Pettau is situated on the left bank of the Drave; the population does not exceed seventeen hundred inhabitants, but it has its convents of dominicans, minorites, and capuchins. It is considered the most ancient town in Styria, many suppose it to have been built before the country was conquered by the Romans; there is, however, reason to believe that it was then situated on the other bank of the river.

Luttemburg, on the east of Pettau, is famous for its wines. The town of Cilly is adorned with a castle in which many valuable antiquities are preserved. It was founded by the emperor Claudius, who gave it the name of *Claudia;* its present walls are partly built with the remains of ancient buildings, but the barracks which have been lately erected, form the finest edifice in the place. According to the legends, Maximilian, the first bishop of Cilly, was decapitated in the town about the year 284. A third, Tœplitz, which is also known for its mineral waters, is situated below the mountains on the south of Cilly. Rann, a small town encompassed with walls now in ruins, lies near the southern extremity of the province, on the banks of the Save. The lands in the neighbourhood are fruitful, and wine forms the principal branch of its commerce. The rapid waters of the Save are covered with empty casks at the approach of autumn; they are bound together and steered by mariners who descend to the town and sell them to the inhabitants during the vintage. It is supposed that Rann was the *Novidunum* of the Romans; it was pillaged and destroyed by the Turks after a sanguinary battle, in the year 1475.

Voitzberg. | Voitzberg, a district situated to the west of Grœtz on the left bank of the Mur, is surrounded by mountains which separate it from Upper Styria and Illyria. The highest part of the country is exposed for seven months in the year to the rigours of winter, to frequent and violent storms. But the vallies in the lower part of the country abound in fruits and wine. The inhabitants export coal, sharping stones that are much prized in Styria, and draught horses of a good kind. The people are industrious, they are employed in their iron works, nail manufactories, paper mills, and brick kilns; many of them, however, are subject to goitres. The small town of Voitzberg, three burghs, and twenty villages, are contained in the district.

Population of the two sexes. | The number of women throughout Styria exceeds that of the men by nearly twenty-six thousand;[f] the latter are supposed to be equal to three hundred and seventy-four thousand. Five is considered the average number of members in each family, and all the families, it has been calculated, amount to 160,500.[g]

[f] See Steyermark Zeitschr. 1821.

[g] The reader will find some details concerning the population and agricultural wealth of the country, in the statistical tables at the end of the next chapter.

BOOK CXXIX.

EUROPE.

Germany.—Thirteenth Section.—Kingdom of Illyria described.—Austria and Germany concluded.

Ancient inhabitants.

THE name of Illyria is connected with historical recollections; it was one of the most ancient kingdoms in Europe, but it lost that title when it was conquered by Anicius, a Roman general, about a hundred and sixty-eight years before the vulgar era. It retained, however, the name of *Illyricum*, and under the reign of Augustus, Liburnia and Dalmatia, the fruits of new conquests were added to it. Pliny informs us that the *Peucetiæ* and the *Japides* inhabited the region between Istria and Liburnia; we may add that the *Carni* possessed the country on the south of the Carnian Alps. It is supposed that these people were of Celtic origin. Mentelle affirms that *Carnia*, the present Carniola, derives its name from the word *Karn*, which signifies barley.[b] If, however, the name of the country be derived from a Germanic word, it must be from *Korn*, now that word, as every body knows, signifies wheat, barley, and all kinds of grain. Could it be proved that the country owes its name to the abundance of its harvests, it might have been originally called *Kornia;* the conjecture is indeed strengthened by the existence of a Roman medal, struck to commemorate the victories of Scaurus over the Carni; on one side are seen a mercury and a cornucopia filled with ears of corn.

Historical notice.

Illyria was so much enlarged by the addition of different provinces, that at the partition of the Roman empire between Honorius and Arcadius, it was divided into two parts, of which one belonged to the eastern, and the other to the western empire.[c] But the name of Illyrium was no longer used after the northern hordes invaded that portion of Europe; it was comparatively of late years that the Austrian chancery restored its name, to distinguish part of the ancient *Illyricum* from the Hungarian provinces, and those that extend on the south of the Drave. After the peace of Presburg, Napoleon, who compelled Austria to cede Krainburg, Friuli, Istria, Croatia, on the south of the Save, a portion of Dalmatia and Tyrol, incorporated them under the name of Illyria with his vast empire. Austria having gained anew her possessions in 1814, united Carniola and Carinthia, the territory of Trieste, a portion of Croatia, Austrian Friuli, and Venetian Istria; the kingdom of Illyria was thus restored. It was at the same time divided into two governments, those of Laybach and Trieste.

Boundaries, surface.

It is bounded on the north and the east by the archdutchy of Austria, the duthcy of Styria, and Croatia, on the south by the country of Carlstadt and the Adriatic gulf, on the west by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom and the county of Tyrol. According to Blumenbach, it is equal in superficial extent to six hundred and eighteen German, or seven thousand four hundred and sixteen English miles.

Soil.

Lofty chains of mountains extend across the country in different directions; the coasts are marshy on the east, in other places they are low and dry. The peninsula of Istria, bounded on the south by Cape *Promontory*, forms the southern portion of the government of Trieste. The vallies in the districts of Villach and Klagenfurth are sufficiently fertile; the soil is covered with calcareous fragments. The

[a] Liber III. cap. XXI.

[b] See Encyclopedia Methodique, Dictionnaire de la geographie ancienne, by Mentelle.

[c] Ruffus, Notices de l'Empire.

lands in the circles of Laybach, Neustadt, and Adelsberg, in some places abounding with rocks, in others covered with marshes, sandstone, and sand, are sterile and unfruitful. The western portion of the kingdom is bathed by the Adriatic; there, the dry soil which rests on calcareous rocks, and the scarcity of the water, do not appear to be hurtful to the vegetation. It may be remarked that the plants in the southern districts have a great resemblance to those on the shores of the Black Sea.

The branches of two lofty chains extend into Illyria;—the Norican Alps on the north, and the Julian Alps on the south. They are in a great measure, particularly the last, composed of the calcareous rocks which geologists have called secondary, and which, from their tendency to give way, so as to form numerous cavities, might well be termed cavernous. It seems, indeed, as if all these heights were hollow; at least it cannot be denied that almost as many rivers flow below as above the ground. The stranger who follows their course, observes them entering and returning at different distances from the depths of the earth. Others become wholly dry at certain seasons of the year, and afterwards reappear.

Cavern at Adelsberg.

It might be possible to enumerate more than a thousand caverns in the chain that traverses Illyria from north-west to south-east; but none can be compared in point of extent with the one at Adelsberg, which is situated in a small valley at no great distance from that burgh. Some writers consider it equal in length to five miles. It is by no means easy to trace the rapid declivities in the labyrinth, or the narrow and tortuous passages which lead to immense halls. All agree that it surpasses most places of the kind; the soil is encrusted with fossil bones; a torrent rushes through the cavities with a frightful noise, which is repeated by many echoes; stalactites adorn the halls, and appear in some places like the ruins of old palaces, in others like magnificent columns.[4]

Cave of the Magdalene.

The cave of the Magdalene, although not nearly so large as the last, is fully as deep, and perhaps as remarkable on account of its stactalites. The vault has the appearance of being supported by large cariatides, and their calcareous concretions exhibit the most varied forms. That species of water oft known by the name of *Proteus anguinus*, abounds in a small marsh at the extremity of the cave.

Lake of Czirknitz.

Many lakes, and all of them amply stored with fish, are situated in the Illyrian mountains; but the lake of Czirknitz has been more frequently examined by naturalists than any other; in some years, the angler, the field sportsman, the sower, and the reaper may there find employment. Calcareous mountains bound it on every side; Mount Jovornick commands it on the south, and the Sliviza on the north. It may be about four or five leagues in circumference in dry seasons, and in wet about seven or eight. The waters of eight streams flow into it, and four or five islands rise in the middle of the lake; the village of Vorneck has been built on the largest of these islands.

The lake disappears at irregular periods, and flows through forty clefts or apertures in its channels. The inhabitants then collect the fish that have not been carried away by the water, and shoot the aquatic fowl that seek in vain for their haunts. The husbandman deposites the seed in the fertile ooze, trusting that his labours may be crowned by an abundant harvest; but his labour, his outlay, and his hopes, are often vain. By the same issues, which served to drain the lake, the waters rise suddenly with a tremendous noise resembling thunder; the fish reappear, the teal and water birds find their wonted asylum, and man complains of his improvidence.

[4] See the description of the cavern in a work already cited; the Itinerary of Austria by M. de Jenny. See also the letter of M. Bertrand Geslin to M. Brongniart.—Annales des Sciences Naturalles, Tom. VII. page 258.

Different mineral substances are obtained in the kingdom; Carinthia contains not only carbonated iron, lead, and zinc mines, which are situated in intermediate lands, but also silver and copper. | Metals.

The metallic veins in Carniola are not less abundant; but the quicksilver mines in the neighbourhood of Idria are the most valuable. These mines, together with others in Spain and at Deux-Ponts, supply the greater part of Europe. The quicksilver in Carinthia is found in bituminous schistus. The metallic wealth of the country is circulated by the Drave and the Save,—the principal rivers, and by the Lizonzo and the Quieto, which throw themselves into the Adriatic Gulf.

The keen and cold air of the mountains near Villach and Klangenfurt, prevents the vine from arriving at maturity; but the climate to the south of these mountains is wholesome and temperate. The stranger begins to feel the heat of the atmosphere in the districts between Laybach, Neustadt, and Adelsberg, and it increases gradually as he advances southwards. The chesnut tree and the vine flourish, the climate is favourable to them, and the only obstacle against which they have to contend, arises from the bad quality of the soil. The fig, the mulberry, and even the olive thrive in the country round Trieste; it is seldom that they are exposed to any danger from frost. The vines are loaded with grapes, but their produce does not keep any length of time; the wines, however, that are produced in the valley of Vinodol, form an exception, they may be exported; they are brisk and sparkling, and for that reason have been called the champagne of the country. The domestic animals are not of a good kind; but the people in the vallies devote themselves principally to the rearing of silk-worms.

Although Illyria is not a manufacturing country, the inhabitants are by no means indolent. Industry appears to be most diffused in the neighbourhood of Trieste and Fiume; among the produce of that industry, different works in iron and steel might be mentioned. The people near the shores of the sea are occupied in fishing, or in building vessels. The inhabitants of the kingdom find employment in the carrying trade, or in conveying different sorts of merchandise, conveyed by the Adriatic Gulf, and destined for Vienna and Hungary. | Industry.

The vapours that exhale from the shores of the Adriatic are in many places hurtful to the health. Few strong men are seen in these districts; still the insignificance of the population must be attributed, not to the climate or atmosphere, but to other causes; it is certain that the number of inhabitants for every square league does not exceed seven hundred. They consist of Wends, Siavi, Croats, Germans, and Italians, who in all make up one million two hundred thousand individuals. The most of them profess the catholic religion; the protestants do not amount to more than eighteen thousand persons. The German is spoken by the nobles in the greater part of the kingdom; but the people in Trieste speak a corrupt Italian idiom, and some Serbes retain their Slavonic dialect. | Population.

The freedom of the peasantry is subject to certain restrictions; the kingdom is said to be independent; it must be admitted that the people are nominally represented by the states. But the states are not a legislative assembly, their members have no power to enact laws; they are deputed by the clergy, the nobles, and the towns; it is their province to regulate the amount and the distribution of the taxes. It has been calculated that the revenue of the kingdom is equal to six millions of florins. | Government and revenue.

The village of Ferlach is situated on the banks of the Drave, it contains three thousand inhabitants, many of whom are employed in a manufactory of arms, which furnishes thirty thousand muskets | Towns and villages.

every year. The small town of saint Veit serves as a depot for the iron of Carinthia; its market-place is adorned with a fine ancient fountain.

Capital of Carinthia. Klagenfurt, the capital of Carinthia, is regularly built in the form of a rectangle; it stands on a canal which communicates with the lake of Werth. Fountains may be seen in all the squares and principal streets; the palace of the prince, and the bishop of Gurk, is remarkable for its numerous and valuable collections. The town is peopled by nine thousand five hundred inhabitants; it has its public libraries, seminaries, agricultural and literary societies, hospitals, and other charitable institutions. The inhabitants are said to speak the German language more purely and correctly than any others in the kingdom. The ancient town of Villach, and the village of Bleiberg are situated in the vicinity, both are well known; the former on account of its white marble quarries, and the other for lead mines, which are considered the finest in Europe, and which yield annually more than thirty-five thousand hundred weights of pure metal.

Krainburg, a well built town on the Drave, was inhabited by the Slavonians in the eighth century; many antiquaries suppose it to be built on the site of the ancient *Santicum*. Laybach, or, according to its Slavonic name, Lublana, stands on both banks of the Laybach; its streets, although well paved, are narrow and irregular. The cathedral is admired for its paintings, and the townhouse for its Gothic architecture. Laybach is the seat of government, and the council of censors meet in the same place. It is enriched by its carrying trade with Italy, Croatia, and Bavaria. Gurkfeld is built on a hill planted with vineyards, and the Save flows at its base; it contains two thousand two hundred inhabitants; the principal buildings are a castle and a church. As several articles of antiquity have deen discovered near Gurkfeld, it has been inferred that it was the ancient Novidunum. The fact, however, may be considered doubtful; indeed, there is reason to believe that the ancient and celebrated town of Novidunum was situated at no great distance from Rain. Neustadt is frequented in the summer season by the strangers who repair to the warm baths at Tœplitz.

The town of Mœtling rises at the base of the mountains inhabited by the *Huskoken*, these mountains may be about forty miles in length. Many pilgrims visit Mœtling, but neither their example nor that of the peasants, who repair to it in crowds at certain seasons, have infected the mountaineers; it must be admitted, however, that the Huskoken are a demi-barbarous tribe, depending chiefly on pillage for a subsistence.

Gottschee. Gottschee, a town of sixteen hundred souls, possesses a large and well-built castle. The Gottschers, in the neighbouring country amount in number to forty-four thousand; they may be distinguished from the other inhabitants by their language and their dress. They weave linen and make different articles of wood, which are exported to Austria and Hungary. The men are always armed with small axes, weapons by which they may be easily known. Idria stands in a deep valley, on the Julian Alps; its calvary is situated on a lofty hill, its lead mines are very valuable, the passage that leads to them communicates with the centre of the town.

Government of Trieste. The harshness of the German language may be inferred from the names of the places in the government of Laybach, but in Trieste the most of the names are Italian. Gœrz, or Gorizia, the chief town of a circle, contains ten thousand inhabitants. It stands in a fruitful valley, on the banks of the Lizonzo; it has different societies, one of agriculture, another of arts, and a third of commerce. Monte Santo, a small district famous for its wine, is situated in the neighbourhood. A Roman city rose formerly on the banks of the Anfora, it was destroyed by the Huns in the year 452; the small town, or rather the burgh, of Aquileja

now occupies its site. Encompassed by the fens of the Marano, it cannot be enlarged until these pestilential marshes are drained by government.

Trieste, the capital of the government, was formerly the greatest port in Austria; its castle was ruined by the French commandant in 1813, and there remains only a battery for the purpose of saluting the vessels that enter the roads. Trieste is divided into the old and new town, the latter extends to the base of the mountain which commanded the castle. The only public buildings entitled to notice are, the treasury, a model of architecture, and the church of the Jesuits, which is remarkable for its fine front. Trieste is built in the Italian style, the houses are regular and the streets are broad, particularly in the new town and in the suburbs, but in the old town the buildings are more antiquated, the streets are narrow and dirty. It is impossible to walk in them during wet weather without being exposed to torrents which fall from the housetops. Streams are sometimes transformed into rivers, and if the passenger is in a hurry, the quickest way is to ford or to swim across them. The exterior of the cathedral is only remarkable for the Roman remains with which it was built, and the interior, on account of the monument raised to the memory of the celebrated Winkelmann. Other monuments of a more ancient date may fix the attention; such, for instance, are the triumphal arch erected to Charlemagne, the remains of a Roman amphitheatre, and an ancient Roman aqueduct by which the town is now supplied with water. The harbour of Trieste has lately been improved; ships can now enter it; it enjoys the privileges of free trade, privileges which insure the prosperity of its commerce. All the German Geographers agree that the town contains at least thirty-six thousand inhabitants.* | Trieste.

Capo d'Istria, a maritime town of five thousand four hundred souls, is built on a rock that communicates by a bridge with the continent; it is the metropolis of a diocese. Pirano, which rises like a pyramid at the extremity of a cape, is peopled by six thousand two hundred individuals, most of whom are engaged in fishing or in building vessels, and also in cultivating the vine and olive. The principal church is situated on a height in the centre of the town. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, particularly in salt, obtained from the adjoining marshes. Parenzo, a small town, is remarkable for its cathedral, in which are seen Mosaics of the tenth century, and consequently, at least eighty years older than those in Saint Mark at Venice. | Capo d'Istria.

Rovigno, a well-built town, stands on a headland encompassed with rocks; its Gothic cathedral is its finest edifice. An active trade, its fisheries, and coasting vessels serve to enrich its nine thousand six hundred inhabitants. | Rovigno.

The small town of Pola, near the cape called Promontory, exhibits the remains of that flourishing city which Cæsar destroyed on account of its devotion to Pompey. It might have been owing to the beautiful view which it commands, or to the interest which its faithful and attached inhabitants inspired, that Julia, the daughter of Augustus, persuaded her father to rebuild it; at all events, the town obtained the name of *Pietas Julia*. The pestilential air that rises from its marshes, has, without doubt, contributed to its decay; it is only inhabited at present by eight hundred and fifty individuals. The strangers that examine it, may consider it a Roman or a modern town; the streets are covered with grass, the soil, in some places, with the fragments of ancient buildings. The old castle, which is not yet finished, appears as deserted as the rest of the town. The cathedral is built on the site, and with the remains of a Roman temple. Two other temples, on one of which is inscribed a dedication to Augustus, a large triumphal arch, the *Porta Aurea*, a monument of con- | Pola.

* Thielen makes its population amount to forty thousand five hundred and thirty individuals.

jugal affection, an amphitheatre, which, judging from its dimensions, might have contained fifteen thousand spectators, and many other ruins, still show how much the town was enlarged and adorned by Augustus.

Austrian empire.—Conclusion.

Having arrived at the southern extremity of Germany, it is necessary to make some observations on the state of that country, and in the first place on the German possessions of the Austrian empire. These possessions, including Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, the archdutchy of Austria, Styria, Tyrol, and Illyria, form a superficial extent of three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight German, or nearly forty-nine thousand seven hundred English square miles; they are peopled by ten millions four hundred thousand inhabitants. Thus it appears that in point of surface and population, they make up a little more than the third of the whole empire. But the Germans do not amount to much more than the half of the population, and their number has certainly been overrated by those who consider it equal to seven millions. It may therefore be easily imagined how much the difference of language, manners, and customs tends to weaken their national spirit, and consequently their political force. Considered as a federative state, Austria possesses but few advantages; if the German provinces are attached to their government, an assumption that may be considered doubtful, it is not difficult to observe in Gallicia, in Hungary, and its dependencies, a sort of indifference, and in the Italian provinces, an avowed aversion to the power that governs them. The Austrian government may be anxious to reconcile discordant opinions, but it is by no means disposed to confound so many different interests by institutions which it considers dangerous, perhaps incompatible with the actual civilization of its subjects. It advances slowly on the beaten path, and accommodates itself to the prejudices of the people. Far from imitating Joseph the Second in his projects of improvement, it is rather the effects of its policy to keep the people ignorant. Having granted certain privileges to the Jesuits, Gallicia has been opened to them, they may ere long become as influential throughout the empire as in the time of their splendour.

The house of Austria, rich in its soil, its mines, and in the industry of its inhabitants, ruling a population of thirty two millions,[f] maintaining an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men, and carrying on a trade producing 3,500,000*l.*, is not so formidable as many are apt to imagine. The revenue amounts to 16,035,000*l.* and the public debt to more than six times that sum. The navy consists only of seven ships of the line, as many frigates, and ten or twelve brigs and sloops. It was determined by the last treaties that the course of the Inn should form a western boundary; this object of Austrian ambition has at length been attained; but Austria may wish to be invulnerable in other points besides those towards Bavaria. Although secure from the chances of an attack in that quarter, although now too powerful to fear the cresent that twice threatened to destroy it, a more formidable enemy may advance against it from the north;—Gallicia has been considered its bulwark, but that country, from its nature and position, could afford but a feeble defence in the event of an invasion. It is unnecessary to extend these general remarks, or to enter into details; the readers who may be desirous of obtaining further information concerning the resources, and position of the German provinces under the Austrian empire, may be referred to the tables at the end of the chapter.

Germany concluded.

It may be asked what are the conclusions connected with the moral and political state of Germany, to which a stranger is likely to arrive, who traverses it in every direction, and who judges with impartiality. Is that vast federative state united by common interests? is it powerful from the resources which the different states that compose it,

[f] Alphabetisch-topographisches Postreise-Handbuch, by Thielen, 1827.

afford to each other; or is it not a country whose inhabitants are only united by the same language? The light of knowledge has long been diffused over Germany; have the instructions thus rendered necessary, tended to improve the condition of the people? Such are the questions which it is proposed to examine.

Comparison between its ancient and present form of government.

When more than three hundred states represented at the Germanic diet, acknowledged the supremacy of an elected chief with the title of emperor; Germany might have been considered a vast country divided into principalities, or rather into governments. More detached from the rest of Europe, the Germans in these different governments might be said to form a single nation. But at present, while Germany consists of forty-two independent sovereignties, some of which are sufficiently important to depend on their own resources, the federative bonds have been destroyed by conflicting interests; nothing of former Germany now remains; it differs wholly from what it was during the sixteenth century. At one time the clergy and nobles possessed a decided preponderance and many privileges burdensome to the people. But the reformation first weakened and at last destroyed the temporal power of the clergy. The spirit of liberty has in later times made new conquests, and created new institutions.

No longer compelled to labour gratuitously for the nobles, governed by a comparatively small number of princes, the Germans have undoubtedly gained by their recent changes. The taxes have been distributed with greater impartiality, numerous roads offer more easy means of communication, and additional wealth has been diffused throughout every class of society. Some trifling improvements have even originated amidst the evils of war; if the houses, says a German author, are now numbered in every town, it must be attributed to the necessity of finding quarters for the French soldiers; in the same manner, the custom of lighting the streets was not introduced before the seven years' war.[g] Other writers have observed that since the residence of the French troops amongst them, the houses are better built and better decorated, the apartments are more commodious, and the furniture more substantial. If the wars of Napoleon were for a season disastrous to Germany, that celebrated person ought perhaps to be as much respected as he is now execrated by the Germans; for while he oppressed the country with the weight of his power, the continental system tended to expand those germs of industry, of which the people are beginning to reap the blessed fruits.

Northern and Southern Germany.

The Thuringerwald divides Germany into two regions, the northern and the southern. The northern Germans living on bread, potatoes, milk and butter, drinking occasionally beer and spirits, are stronger, more frugal and more enlightened; protestantism has made most proselytes amongst them. Delicate in their manner of life, accustomed to wine, sometimes addicted to drunkenness, the southern Germans may be more lively, but they are also more superstitious. In northern Germany, numerous habitations, villages adorned with fountains, neat and clean houses, excellent roads lined with fruit trees, and well cultivated fields, proclaim the wealth of the inhabitants.

Many castles, the remains of feudal times, begin to appear in the country near the Black Forest. These, and the different monuments throughout Germany, are kept in good repair; if they fall to ruin, it cannot be imputed to negligence but to time, which is often more ready to destroy than the hand of man to preserve.

State of the sciences.

A distinguished writer calls Germany *the country of thought*.[h] The unnumbered philosophical and metaphysical systems from

[g] Deutsland oder Briefe eines in Deutsland reisenden Deutschen. [h] L'Allemagne by Madam de Stael.

the time of the profound Leibnitz to the days of the unintelligible Kant, might perhaps entitle it to such a designation. But it has been said correctly that the country abounds with learned men; they are not, as in other states, confined to the capital, they may be met with in the smallest towns. As to the physical sciences, they have been cultivated with as much success as in other countries, they are now more encouraged by the different governments than by the government of that nation, which boasts, perhaps not without reason, of having been pre-eminent in Europe, in the career of science. However painful it may be for a Frenchman to humble his national pride before strangers so long his inferiors, it must be admitted that among the advantages of the late peace, are those which have enabled different states in Germany to compete with France in the most attractive and most useful departments of knowledge. It may be sufficient to visit the collections at Munich, Berlin and Frankfort, and to converse with the distinguished men in these towns, to be convinced that the Germans are not surpassed by their neighbours. Equal to other nations in different sciences, in theology, jurisprudence and history, they may be inferior in political knowledge, but the means of acquiring it are rapidly increasing; six hundred journals are now published in the country.

Education. The method of public instruction adopted in the universities is superior to that used in the French colleges. It may be remarked, although the youth are taught to read Greek and Latin in a shorter period than eight years, that there are in no country more celebrated classical scholars and archaiologists.

Gymnastics. Gymnastics form a part of the education in different states; it has been said that such exercises, besides their advantage in rendering the body flexible and robust, have a salutary influence on the moral character, or that young men fatigued by this healthful labour are more apt to avoid dangers which are too often the consequences of effeminacy and repose.

Literature, music. As society has few charms in Germany, the enjoyments of reading and study are necessarily better appreciated than in other countries. Music appears to be almost an innate art with the Germans. Students may be seen walking in procession, and singing hymns of praise to the divinity; the peasant during intervals of labour often composes an air on a wretched harpsichord, and the shepherd makes the woods re-echo the harmonious notes of his flute.

Population. The population of Germany amounts to thirty millions five hundred thousand inhabitants, who are dispersed over a surface of twelve thousand German or more than a hundred and fifty thousand English square miles, so that the average number of individuals for every German square mile is equal to two thousand five hundred and forty-two.

According to statistical accounts, there are sixteen millions of protestants, twenty-five thousand Herrenhutians, two thousand five hundred Mennonites, fourteen thousand of the eastern church, and three hundred thousand Jews.[1] The revenue exceeds two hundred millions of florins, and the miltary force three hundred thousand men.

Improvements that may be expected. Unprovided with harbours, destitute of canals, particularly in the southern states, the debt must be liquidated, the representative system better understood, a navy created, or much increased, inland commerce less shackled by custom-houses, the coinage, as well as the system of weights and measures, rendered uniform, lastly, the people must be more united, before it can be flourishing within, and respected without.

[1] Deutschland oder Breife, &c.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE GERMAN PROVINCES UNDER THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

A. KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA,

DIVIDED INTO SIXTEEN CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Rakonitz	160,299
2 Beraum	163,389
3 Haurzim	181,631
4 Bunzlau	375,832
5 Bidschow	237,738
6 Kœniggrœtz	309,102
7 Chrudin	285,096
8 Czaslau	226,590
9 Tabor	185,979
10 Butweis	194,502
11 Prachim	246,140
12 Klattau	163,132
13 Pilzen	189,586
14 Ellbogen	220,103
15 Saatz	128,655
16 Leitmeritz	335,112
Town of Prague	85,710
Total amount,	3,698,596[a]

Domestic Animals in 1822.

Horses	137,000
Oxen	894,400
Sheep	1,091,700
Pigs	223,800
Goats	61,300
Mules	100

Number of Religious Societies in 1825.

Capuchins	15
Augustines	7
Minorites	3
Dominicans	3
Franciscans	14
Benedictines	3
Norbertines or Premonstrantes	4
Charity-Brothers	3
Knights of the Cross	1
Piarites	14

[a] The numbers in the above table are taken from the manual of M. Thielen, published in 1827.

Ursulines	2
Carmelites	1
Sisters of Saint Elizabeth	2
Cistertians, Servites, &c.	4

Places of Education in 1822.

University	1
Lyceums	6
Gymnasia	26
	33

Elementary Catholic Schools	2512
Elementary Protestant Schools	48
Elementary mixed Schools	380
Elementary Jewish Schools	21
Musical Conservatory	1
Polytechnic Institute	1
	2963

Number of professors and teachers	6,709
Number of students attending the university	2,055
——— scholars at the Lyceums	656
——— at the Gymnasia	6,497
——— at the Polytechnic Institute	791
——— at the Musical Conservatory	75
——— at the Elementary schools	400,889
	410,963

Division of the Land.

Fields	3,828,500	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	86,000	
Vineyards	4,400	
Meadows	799,000	
Pasture lands	610,000	
Forests	2,310,000	
Marshes	132,700	
	7,770,600	

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Tchekes	2,365,000
Germans	1,275,000
Jews	58,000

Population according to the different Worships.

Catholics	3,587,000
Calvinists	40,000
Lutherans	13,000
Jews	58,000

B. MORAVIA AND AUSTRIAN SILESIA,

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT CIRCLES.

1 Iglau	170,037
2 Znaym	157,682
3 Brünn	332,541
4 Hradisch	244,791
5 Olmütz	401,043
6 Prerau	249,699
7 Troppau	219,110
8 Teschen	173,810
	1,968,713

Domestic Animals.

Horses	128,000
Oxen	56,500
Cows	301,000
Sheep	403,000

Places of Education in 1822.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical institutions	2
Permanent academy	1
Catholic Gymnasia	12
Lutheran Gymnasium	1
Normal Schools	2
Secondary Schools	20
Elementary Schools	1,627
Public boarding schools for girls	12
Schools of industry	3
Sunday Schools	1,548
	3,229

Number of scholars - - - 153,000

Division of the Land.

Fields	2,200,400	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	58,000	
Vineyards	51,000	
Meadows	325,000	
Pasture lands	429,000	
Forests	1,120,000	
Marshes	41,800	
Waste lands	596,300	
	4,821,500	

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants for the year 1825.

Germans	462,000
Slavonians	1,473,000
Jews	32,000
Ziguennes or Gypsies	1,000

Population according to the different Religions.

Catholics	1,860,000
Calvinists	16,000
Lutheran	60,000
Jews	32,000

C. ARCHDUTCHY OF AUSTRIA,

DIVIDED INTO NINE CIRCLES.

Lower Austria.

		Population.
1	Vienna	241,774
	Lower Weiner-Wald	229,797
2	Upper Weiner-Wald	222,352
3	Lower Manhartsberg	262,311
4	Upper Manhartsberg	236,361

Upper Austria.

5	Circle of the Muhl	195,288
6	——— the Inn	137,489
7	——— the Hausruck	176,511
8	——— the Traun	175,982
9	——— Salzburg	141,105
		2,008,970

Domestic Animals.

Horses	100,000
Oxen	120,000
Cows	500,000
Sheep	700,000

Religious Societies.

Convents of men and women	45

Places of Education.

University	1
Philosophical Institution	1
Lyceums	3
Gymnasia	11
Academies	7
Academies of Arts and Trade	2
Schools of Medicine	2
——— Engineers	1
——— Oriental Languages	1
Normal Schools	2
Elementary and higher Schools for Girls	35
Schools of Industry	50
Principal German Schools	20
Protestant Seminary	1
Public Schools	2,000
Sunday Schools	120

Village Schools	4,500
Number of Pupils that attend the Schools	150,000

Division of the Soil.

Fields	2,120,000 Iochs or acres.
Gardens	81,000
Vineyards	79,000
Meadows	753,000
Pasture lands	1,064,000
Forests	1,830,000
Waste lands	883,500
	6,810,500

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	2,000,000
Slavonians	6,750
Greeks	350
Armenians	200
Jews	1,500

Different Religions.

Catholics	1,975,000
Lutherans	30,600
Calvinists	1,350
Greeks	350
Jews	1,500

D. COUNTY OF TYROL,

DIVIDED INTO SEVEN CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Lower Inn	88,869
2 Upper Inn	123,722
3 Pusterthal	98,823
4 The Adige or Botzen	104,101
5 Trente	161,528
6 Roveredo	98,156
7 Vorarlberg	86,754
	762,053

Domestic Animals.

Horses	7,600
Mules	1,100
Oxen	44,000
Cows	131,000
Sheep	137,500
Goats	63,000
Pigs	40,400

Religious Societies.

Convents for men and women	22

Places of Education.

Lyceums	2
Gymnasia	6
Normal Schools	2
Seminaries endowed by Government	15
Elementary Schools	735
Schools for Girls	59

Division of the Land, not including the Circle of Vorarlberg.

Fields	152,000 Iochs or acres.
Vineyards	17,300
Meadows	392,600
Forests	1,508,600
Waste lands	2,906,700
	4,978,200

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	598,500
Italians	163,420
Jews	80

E. DUTCHY OF STYRIA,

DIVIDED INTO FIVE CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Cilly	181,529
2 Marburg	185,766
3 Grœtz	306,321
4 Bruck	66,235
5 Iudenburg	89,880
	829,731

Domestic Animals.

Horses	44,700
Oxen	82,400
Cows	206,300
Sheep	126,300

Religious Societies.

Convents	27

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical School	1
Gymnasia	5
Normal School	1
Principal Schools	7
Houses of Education for Girls	2

Division of the Land.

Fields	610,400	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	9,000	
Vineyards	51,800	
Meadows	437,000	
Pasture Lands	644,400	
Forests	1,507,200	
Marshes	700	
Waste Lands	552,300	
	3,812,800	

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	478,500
Wends	299,400
Hungarians, Italians, French, &c.	51,800

Different Worships.

Catholics	826,700
Lutherans	3,000

F. KINGDOM OF ILLYRIA,

DIVIDED INTO TWO GOVERNMENTS AND SEVEN CIRCLES.

Government of Laybach.

	Population.
1 Villach	122,795
2 Klagenfurt	164,547
3 Laybach	157,100
4 Neustadt	183,508
5 Adelsberg	86,436

Government of Trieste.

9 Goertz or Gorizia	162,928
7 Istria	192,564
Territory of Trieste	54,315
	1,124,193

Domestic Animals.

Horses	32,800
Oxen	97,100
Cows	167,300
Sheep	234,900

Religious Societies.

Convents	18

Places of Education.

Lyceums	3
Gymnasia	6

Normal Schools	2
Academies	5
Schools for girls	3

Division of the Land.

Fields	728,200 Iochs or acres.
Gardens	24,200
Vineyards	34,400
Meadows	561,700
Pasture lands	856,200
Forests	1,359,500
Marshes	48,500
Waste lands	2,462,900
	6,075,600

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	220,000
Wends, Slavonians, &c.	850,000
Serbes	1,000
Italians	50,000
Greeks	700
Jews	2,500

Different Religions.

Catholics	1,110,000
Greeks	700
Lutherans	10,800
Calvinists	200
Jews	2,500

Number of Horses, Cattle, &c. for every German square mile in the year 1820.

	Horses.	Oxen.	Cows.	Sheep.
Kingdom of Bohemia	127	253	632	954
Moravia and Austrian Silesia	232	102	347	732
Archdutchy of Austria { Upper Austria	128	259	829	568
Archdutchy of Austria { Lower Austria	158	248	547	969
County of Tyrol	14	85	253	266
Dutchy of Styria	112	206	516	316
Kingdom of Illyria	63	187	322	452

Increase of the Population in German Austria.

	In 1820.	In 1822.	Increase.	In 1825.	Increase.
Bohemia	3,379,341	3,539,441	160,100	3,698,596	159,155
Moravia and Silesia	1,860,000	1,910,000	50,000	1,968,713	58,713
Austria	1,897,417	1,956,334	158,917	2,008,970	52,646
Tyrol	737,562	755,401	17,839	762,053	6,652
Styria	777,926	805,847	27,921	829,731	23,884
Illyria[b]		1,089,175		1,124,193	85,018[c]

[b] The number of inhabitants in Illyria amounted in 1820 to 1,141,960 individuals, but as the territory of Carlstadt, and part of Hungary were then included in Illyria, the population of that year has not been mentioned in the table.

[c] M. Kudler supposes that the population of Bohemia has doubled within the last 230 years, and that of Moravia and Silesia within the last 296 years. According to the same author, the other provinces present as striking variations.

Population of German Austria for every German square mile in 1825.

	Inhabitants.
Bohemia	3,885
Moravia and Silesia	4,090
Austria	2,837
Tyrol	1,476
Styria	2,079
Illyria	2,166

Proportion between the number of the two Sexes.

		Excess of Women.	Ratio between the Sexes.
1818.	Bohemia	233,998	as 1,153 to 1,000
	Moravia and Silesia	125,948	as 1,154 to 1,000
	Austria { Upper	40,811	as 1,094 to 1,000
	Austria { Lower	65,352	as 1,129 to 1,000
	Tyrol	12,833	as 1,039 to 1,000
1820.	Styria	25,788	as 1,068 to 1,000
	Illyria { Laybach	27,081	as 1,088 to 1,000
	Illyria { Trieste	1,600	as 1,006 to 1,000

Sentences pronounced by the Supreme Criminal Court at Vienna from 1806 *to* 1809.—*German Provinces and Gallicia.*

Attempted Crimes	Sacrilege.	Child Murder.	Exposing of Children.	Duels.	Seductions and Rapes.
751	14	160	274	3	172

Bigamy.	Defamation.	Conspiracies.
78	156	84

Amount of the Capital Crimes committed in the Austrian Empire.

1823. GERMAN PROVINCES AND GALLICIA.

Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of Power.	Theft and Forgery.	Fire-raising.
22	13	11	15	5

Number of Trials.

	Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of power.	Forgery and Theft.	Fire-Raising.	Political Insurrections and Revolts.	Mortal Wounds.	Conspiracies.
1824.								
Bohemia	54	1108	4	76	4	57	45	0
Moravia and Silesia	38	482	1	57	6	19	16	0
Austria	38	1136	3	141	10	13	23	0
Styria and Corinthia	34	362	5	42	0	35	8	0
Gallicia	87	807	12	112	60	139	60	2

Number of Children who frequent the Schools.[4]

Lower Austria - - - 1 out of every 10 in 1811

[4] See the work entitled—The World compared with the British Empire, by M. Actrian Balbi.

Upper Austria	1 out of every 13
Moravia and Silesia	1 out of every 11
Bohemia	1 out of every 18 in 1789
Id.	1 out of every 9 in 1822
Styria and Carinthia	1 out of every 10

Number of Journals and Newspapers published in Germany in 1826.

German Austria	35
Prussia	288
Wirtemberg	29
Bavaria	48
Saxony	54
Hanover	19
Great Dutchy of Baden	22
Hesse-d'Armstadt	18
Electoral Hesse	13
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	9
Saxe-Weimar	17
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	7
Saxe-Meiningen	2
Hamburg	22
Frankfort on the Maine	18
Other Petty States	31
Total	632

BOOK CXXX.

EUROPE.

Switzerland.

SWITZERLAND is considered, in point of romantic and picturesque scenery, the finest country in Europe. To give an account of such a country, to mark the contrasts between verdure and eternal snow, silent forests and roaring cataracts, fruitful vallies and sterile mountains, together with all the varied pictures of gigantic nature, form a task as difficult perhaps for the writer as the painter. Switzerland besides is so well known, it is so often the subject of conversation, that even those who have never seen it, are enabled to judge of it with sufficient accuracy. To describe the most important features of the country, and whatever it contains most worthy of notice, is the object of the present chapter; itineraries are not wanting to guide the travellers who wish to examine it minutely.

Boundaries, extent, surface. Switzerland is bounded on the west by France, on the north by the great dutchy of Baden and the kingdom of Wirtemberg, on the east by the Austrian province of Tyrol, and on the south by the Sardinian and the Lombard Venitian states. Its extent from west to east is equal to nearly two hundred English miles, and from north to south to a hundred and fifty. The superficial extent of the country does not exceed twelve thousand English square miles.

Mountains. Two distinct ranges of mountains traverse Switzerland. The Jura chain stretches from south-west to north-east; the other, or the Alpine, which is much more extensive, may be nearly parallel to the former, but numerous and important branches extend from it in every direction. The length of the first may be about two hundred and forty or

two hundred and fifty miles, while its breadth varies from thirty-five to forty. Precipitous and abrupt towards the Alps, it becomes gradually lower on the side of France.

It is principally formed by calcareous rocks of a grayish ash or bluish colour, and in some places mixed with marble. Organic remains are by no means uncommon; such are the bivalvular shells which geologists have termed *gryphites*, the spiral and contorted shells which, from their configuration, have been called *ammonites*, or horns of Ammon, and those singular conical remains that have received the name of *belemnites* or thunderbolts. The calcareous strata, alternate with layers of fine sand, which reaches in some places to the height of eighteen hundred or two thousand feet. But they are occasionally separated from each other by beds of pebbles or small angular and rounded stones, that could only have been united in the depths of the ancient ocean, by the calcareous cement that envelopes them. The small stones are fragments of the different granite rocks that form the nucleus of these mountains and the summits of the Alps. The geologist cannot observe without interest, the granite blocks at the height of two thousand feet above the lake of Geneva; they have apparently fallen from the highest summits to the declivities of Jura on the side of Switzerland. | Rocks that compose it.

The Alps afford the materials of continual study and reflection to the geologist who examines them. Among the phenomena thus presented to his notice, some have not been sufficiently observed, although all have been often explained by the aid of hypothesis and different theories. | Alps.

The immense masses that constitute the Alps, exhibit at first sight the appearance of confusion and disorder; they seem the venerable witnesses of the natural convulsions which took place when the earth assumed the form assigned it by its creator. Inaccessible peaks covered with snow, summits from their perpendicular sides, not unlike gigantic obelisks, rocks almost destroyed by time, and ready to fall from old age, are the phenomena which the Alpine chains present. But if the observer who surveys them be familiar with the study of nature, he may see its slow and gradual course marked by the cases of destruction and decay. M. Ebel has shown that the most ancient deposites in these mountains are arranged in strata having a direction from west-south-west to east-north-east. | Appearance.

Granite rocks of a date posterior to the formation of organic beings, make up the chain connected with Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe. Different calcareous ramifications of the same chain extend a long way northwards, and rise to a great height, while the granite rocks on the south become gradually lower until they reach the confines of Italy. Nothing can be more imposing than the appearance of Mount Blanc; it towers high above all the mountains; other summits which encompass and incline towards it, have been compared by a geologist to humble subjects, anxious to contemplate and pay homage to their sovereign. The Cervin appears like a triangular pyramid, and its serpentine summit rises to the clouds. But the circular figures which they assume, may be considered the most remarkable phenomena in the arrangement of these heights. Mount Rose, for example, is formed by an uninterrupted series of gigantic peaks that enclose an immense circle, nearly six thousand yards in diameter. Geologists have looked in vain for ancient volcanoes in the Alpine chains, the ocean only has left traces of its former existence.[a] | Granite rocks.

The sun melts superficially the masses of snow that cover the highest regions, and the snow thus melted, is afterwards con- | Glaciers.

[a] Geological institutions by Breisach, tome ii. page 96.

Urselines	2
Carmelites	1
Sisters of Saint Elizabeth	2
Cistertians, Servites, &c.	4

Places of Education in 1822.

University	1
Lyceums	6
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	33

Elementary Catholic Schools	2512
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Elementary Jewish Schools	21
Musical Conservatory	1
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	2963

Number of professors and teachers	6,709
Number of students attending the university	2,055
——— scholars at the Lyceums	656
——— at the Gymnasia	6,497
——— at the Polytechnic Institute	791
——— at the Musical Conservatory	75
——— at the Elementary schools	400,889
	410,963

Division of the Land.

Fields	3,828,500	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	86,000	
Vineyards	4,400	
Meadows	799,000	
Pasture lands	610,000	
Forests	2,310,000	
Marshes	132,700	
	7,770,600	

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Tchekes	2,365,000
Germans	1,275,000
Jews	58,000

Population according to the different Worships.

Catholics	3,587,000
Calvinists	40,000
Lutherans	13,000
Jews	58,000

B. MORAVIA AND AUSTRIAN SILESIA,

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT CIRCLES.

1 Iglau	170,037
2 Znaym	157,682
3 Brünn	332,541
4 Hradisch	244,791
5 Olmütz	401,043
6 Prerau	249,699
7 Troppau	219,110
8 Teschen	173,810
	1,968,713

Domestic Animals.

Horses	128,000
Oxen	56,500
Cows	301,000
Sheep	403,000

Places of Education in 1822.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical institutions	2
Permanent academy	1
Catholic Gymnasia	12
Lutheran Gymnasium	1
Normal Schools	2
Secondary Schools	20
Elementary Schools	1,627
Public boarding schools for girls	12
Schools of industry	3
Sunday Schools	1,548
	3,229

Number of scholars - - - 153,000

Division of the Land.

Fields	2,200,400	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	58,000	
Vineyards	51,000	
Meadows	325,000	
Pasture lands	429,000	
Forests	1,120,000	
Marshes	41,800	
Waste lands	596,300	
	4,821,500	

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants for the year 1825.

Germans	462,000
Slavonians	1,473,000
Jews	32,000
Ziguennes or Gypsies	1,000

attack the eagle on every side, and are often replaced by troops of reserve; indeed it happens most frequently that the eagle is obliged to seek safety in flight. The Alpine eagle measures sixteen or seventeen feet between the tips of the wings; it carries off sheep, goats, and dogs; man never spares it, but it is seldom that it comes within his reach. M. Ebel vouches for the truth of the following anecdote, which evinces certainly no ordinary coolness and address. A young hunter having discovered an eagle's nest, killed the male, and was descending the rocks to destroy the nest; at the moment he was putting his hand into the crevice to take it away, the mother pounced upon him, fixed her talons on his arm, and her beak in his side. The young hunter had presence of mind to stand still; had he moved, he must have fallen to the bottom of a precipice; holding his gun with one hand, and supporting it against the rock, he took his aim, pulled the trigger with his foot, and shot the eagle. M. Ebel adds, that he was forced to remain in bed for six weeks, from the wounds he had received.

Ancient inhabitants. The Swiss are descended from the ancient Helvetii, and from the people that inhabited their country at a later period. History makes no mention of them, until about a hundred years before the Christian era. Although it may be difficult to trace their origin, it is highly probable that they are sprung from a very ancient branch of the Celtic race. The lofty ridges of the Alps that rose from the depths of the ocean, may also have been inhabited before any other country in Europe.

Greek colonies. An author whose erudition cannot be too highly commended,[4] has brought together several important facts to prove that Greek colonists settled in the country long before it was known to the Romans. Five centuries afterwards, when Julius Cæsar undertook the conquest of the Gauls, and defeated the Helvetii, then marching to invade Gaul, a register of their army, written in Greek characters, was found in the baggage. Allies of the Cimbri and different German nations, they had invaded Marseilles fifty years before that period, and defeated the consul Silanus. Cassius being sent to give them battle, crossed the Alps, but the Helvetii returned home, and destroyed his legions, not far from the place where the Rhone throws itself into the lake of Geneva.* If Divico, their chief, had known how to improve his victory, he might have made himself master of Rome; at all events the Romans were then trembling for their safety, and deploring the defeat of their general. But the Helvetii divided their forces, and Marius conquered them in two battles, first at Aix in Provence, and afterwards on the banks of the Adige in Italy.

Defeated by Cæsar. These victories, however, are insignificant, when compared with the one which Cæsar gained over them. Two hundred and sixty-three thousand Helvetii, and a hundred thousand allies from Jura, the lake of Constance, Tyrol, and the Grisons, began their march, after having burnt twelve towns and four hundred villages in their own country,—determined never to return home. Men, women, children, chariots, and cattle were accompanied by ninety-two thousand combatants, commanded by the same Divico. A hundred thousand Helvetii were all that escaped the arms of the Romans; Cæsar permitted them to rebuild their habitations. The people were included after this defeat among the allies of the republic, but their independence did not continue longer than six years. They were afterwards ranked among the people subject to Rome, and made liable to all the hardships which the Romans imposed on conquered nations.

Foreign invasions. The first foreign invasion into Switzerland, happened about a hundred years after the christian era. Not more than two centuries afterwards, the seeds of Christianity were sown in the country; it had been always subject to the emperors, but in the fourth century its masters were changed. A population consisting of Alemani, Longobardi,

[4] Muller's History of Switzerland. * Cæsar—Book I.

Vandali, Burgundiones and other nations that appeared for the first time in history, subdued the greater part of the country. The conquerors mixed with the conquered, and formed a new nation, when Helvetia was again desolated by the hordes of Attila. But the Burgundian race continued in the land, they had their kings, and Geneva became the place of their residence. The Helvetians were less oppressed by the barbarians than they had been by the Romans.

Religion.

The druidical worship of the ancient Helvetii was amalgamated with that of their conquerors. *Hesus* and *Teutates*, *Belenus*, the god of light, *Taranis*, armed with thunder, *Siwa*, the divinity of the Grisons, *Penninus*, the god of the people in Valais, shared the homage of the inhabitants. A few Christians inhabited, however, some vallies in Jura, at the commencement of the third century; four hundred years afterwards some Scottish monks came to preach the gospel to the heathens in Helvetia and Gaul, one of them acquired so great a reputation for sanctity, that the celebrated abbey of Saint Gaul was erected as a tribute to his memory, about fifty years after his death. Can the resistance which the Helvetians opposed to new invaders, be attributed to the influence of a religion that then began to enlighten a degraded people?

Other invasions.

The Huns invaded Switzerland in the eighth century, but their army was wholly defeated; two hundred years afterwards, hordes made up of Hungarians, Moors, and Saracens, appeared twice on the Alps; they burned the villages, plundered the country during fifty years, and were at last destroyed by the brave mountaineers. The names of some places, such as *Maur-Mont*, *Mauro-Fonte*, and the *Wall of the Saracens*, near Avenche, serve still to attest their residence.[f]

Under the protection of the empire.

Helvetia was under the protection of the German empire; Rodolphus of Habsburg, in the height of his power, formed the project of uniting the different parts of Switzerland into a single sovereignty. Albert, his son, followed the same policy, but the inhabitants were much oppressed by his officers. Gessler, in particular, rendered their yoke very burdensome, and William Tell, by putting that tyrant to death, paved the way for the deliverance of his countrymen. Three heroes, whose names are revered throughout the republic,—Werner, from the canton of Schwitz, Walter Hurst, from Uri, and Arnold, from Underwald, resolved in 1308 to take possession of the strong holds occupied by the Austrian governors. The secret of their conspiracy was so well kept, the measures concerted with such wisdom, and executed with so much courage and intrepidity, that the result was the independence of their country: But the *Waldstetten*, or the three well-wooded cantons of Schwitz, Underwald, and Uri, which have been already mentioned, formed at that time the whole of free Helvetia. They made up the confederation of Schwitz in 1315, at a later period the other cantons were successively included; and in 1513, Appenzell made up that federative republic, of which the independence was confirmed and secured by the treaty of Westphalia.

In 1798, Switzerland, like many other countries, was obliged to submit to the laws which victorious France dictated; part of its territory was taken away, and the government was changed. Geneva, which had been ceded to France, was restored in 1815, and the country was at the same time divided into twenty-two cantons.

Religion.

The ancient gods of Helvetia were not worshipped after the introduction of Christianity, but other beings of the imagination occupied their place. The forests and mountains were peopled with spirits, and it is supposed that the causeway of Peter Pertius, as well as the natural bridge that rises above it, were constructed by the devil; the bridge may

[f] M. Simond's Travels in Switzerland. Volume Second.

be about thirty or forty feet in breadth, and forms an arch of twenty or twenty-five feet in height at the centre. The reformation of the sixteenth century was not embraced by all the inhabitants. The cantons of Bale, Berne, Vaud, Schaffhausen, Zurich, Geneva, and Neuchatel are separated from Rome. Soleure, Friburg, Lucerne, Zug, Schwartz, Underwald, Uri, Tesino, and Valais have continued catholic. The cantons of Argau, Glaris, Thurgau, Saint Gall, Appenzell, and the Grisons are partly peopled by catholics and protestants.

Language. Several languages are used in different parts of the country, but the German, more generally than any other; the people in the greater part of Switzerland speak it; it has been called the harshest and most guttural German. The inhabitants of Vaud, Neuchatel, Geneva, and several in Berne, Soleure, Friburg, and Valais, speak French; but the lower orders in the same cantons make use of another language, which is divided into several dialects, and apparently formed by Celtic, Greek, and Latin words; it has been considered the most ancient in the country.

Character of the Swiss. The honesty, simplicity, and moral purity of the Swiss, have been greatly overrated. The wealthy who travel through Switzerland, are apt to be misled by the impressions produced by many romantic sites, so different from others in the rest of Europe; it is the only country inhabited by shepherds and husbandmen living under a popular government. The peaceful life of the mountaineers makes the citizen envy their destiny, he believes them happy, being rendered so himself by the new sensations which a variety of objects create; he forms a high idea of their virtue, because removed from the sphere of ambition and intrigue, he supposes them to be without ambition, care, or vice. Thus, the inhabitants of towns are apt to suppose that happiness can only be found in the country; it is, however, but too well known that examples of virtue and good morals are not always to be met with in villages. In Switzerland, as in every other country, ignorance and poverty are rarely united with moral qualities; in the cantons where education is diffused, where industry and commerce are sources of wealth, the people are contented and happy. Religion exerts a beneficient influence, and the spirit of union and tolerance, which pervades every class of the community, may in part, at least, be attributed to protestantism.

If the Swiss have litte taste for the charms of society, they are perhaps on that account more susceptible of other enjoyments; domestic happiness, conjugal and parental affections, as well as the other virtues of private life, are more common in Switzerland than in countries where social pleasures are better understood, where the feelings are less concentrated. The men meet, but it is to converse, to smoke and walk about a chamber, where three chairs are sufficient for twelve persons. It is not difficult to discover the character of an individual almost at the first interview, so great is the simplicity of manners, so little effect has been produced by the usages of society. Thus, says a Swiss author,[c] "at the concert or the church, at every place where a number of persons are assembled, but most of all at a play, which being seldom permitted, is on that account more frequented, it is impossible not to observe the prodigious diversity of physiognomies in people of every age, but particularly in the young, the extreme mobility of their features, the ingenuousness and vivacity of their expressions."

Bravery, the love of labour, attachment to their country, respect for ancient customs and institutions, form the principal features in the national character. The mass of the people are more enlightened than in other countries; in some cantons, not only the wealthy but the peasantry cultivate literature and the arts. The human mind, however, is made up of so

[c] Meister's Travels from Zurich to Zurich.

many contradictions, that in Switzerland, where liberty has been established for several ages, some remains of the worst of governments are suffered to exist;—justice is privately administered, and the torture is still in use.

Different costumes, of which the origin is very ancient, distinguish the people in most of the cantons; in several, sumptuary laws have been introduced, a wise and salutary measure in a country where independence and liberty are fostered by the absence of luxury. Games of chance are prohibited, but gymnastic exercises are the daily amusements of the young; they engage in the race, in wrestling, in throwing the dart, or in shooting at a target. Although the Swiss are not a poetical people,[h] it is certain that of all the arts, music is the one most generally cultivated. Dress.

The different branches of agriculture are well understood in Switzerland, and if it were not for variable seasons, it might be unnecessary to import grain or other articles of primary necessity. The extent and fruitfulness of the pastures are favourable to the propagation of cattle; the oxen are remarkable for their size, and the cows, particularly the short-horned breed in the vallies of Gruyeres, are much prized in different countries. The horses, though neither swift nor well made, are strong and hardy, but as the mule is more sure footed, it is the most common beast of burden in the mountains. Agriculture.

The commerce of the different cantons has been much diminished since the last treaties. The prohibitory system introduced by neighbouring states, has necessarily confined the outlets which the Helvetic confederation found formerly for its cattle, leather, cheese, hemp and lint, watches and muslin, but its pharmaceutical plants form still a considerable branch of exportation. Commerce.

The canton of Schaffhausen, one of the smallest in Switzerland, is situated at the northern extremity of the country. The capital of the same name is the only town of any consequence, and it must be confessed that it contains little or nothing remarkable. The harbour has been frequented since the eighth century, it was called Schiffhausen, or a shelter for vessels, from its position above the cataracts of the Rhine. The town possesses an academy, a gymnasium, different schools and a biblical society. The trade, which is considerable, consists in cotton stuffs, silk and leather. The strangers, who repair to the celebrated fall of Laufen, one of the most remarkable in Europe, generally visit Schaffhausen. Canton of Schaffhausen.

Frauenfeld, the capital of Thurgau, is chiefly made up of three large and fine streets; its trade consists in different sorts of silk. Bischofzell, a small town, is peopled by husbandmen. Canton of Thurgau.

Saint-Gall is a place of commerce, its inhabitants are industrious; but the only curiosities which are contained in it, are its manuscripts and the ruins of an ancient abbey. The people in the adjacent territory are poorer than any other in Switzerland; they are degraded by ignorance and its attendant vices. Canton of Saint-Gall.

Appenzell, which surrounds the last canton, presents a very different spectacle; the greatest industry prevails through every part of it. The capital of Appenzell may be considered a burgh; Herizau is a place of greater consequence, and possesses a more flourishing trade. Appenzell.

Zurich is remarkable for its romantic situation, and for the fine views that extend from its ramparts and public walks. The materials of its commerce are supplied by its cotton, hat and soap manufactories. It was distinguished in the middle ages by the reformer Zuinglius, and since that period, by the illustrious men, who were born in the town. To be convinced of its just claims to celebrity, it is sufficient to mention the names of Gessner, Lavater and Pestalozzi. The library is rich in manuscripts, in medals and collections of natural history. The Zurich.

[h] Madame de Stael's Germany.

schools are numerous, the academy is frequented by many strangers, and the scientific society might be creditable to larger and more populous cities. The small town of Winterthur rivals Zurich in the industry of its inhabitants; it has its library, and also a fine collection of medals and engraved stones, found in the village Ober-Winterthur, which stands on the site of the ancient Vintodurum.

Canton of Argau. | Arau or Aarau, the capital of Argau, although an old and dirty town, is a place of considerable trade. It possesses several charitable institutions, and schools to which parents are obliged to send their children. A numerous collection of manuscripts relative to the history of Switzerland, forms perhaps the most valuable portion of its library. Arau is the only town in the confederation where meteorological observations are registered. Bade or Baden is known from the baths which the Romans called *Aquæ Varbigenæ*. Tacitus informs us that these baths were finely built, and the same writer commends their salubrity. A great many antiquities have been found near the town; among others, a statute of Isis, which was long worshipped under the name of St. Verena.[1] The small town of Zoffingen is well built, it possesses several fine edifices, a library, and a collection of medals. The only fortress and the only arsenal within the limits of the confederation, are situated in Arburg or Aarburg.

Canton of Bale. | Bale or Basel which Ammianus Marcellinus calls *Basilia*, was the most important town in Helvetia during the eleventh century; it was also during a long time the only one in Europe, where the art of printing was carried to a great degree of perfection. Many illustrious men have been born within its walls, among others, the Bernouillis, the Eulers and the celebrated Holbein; several paintings, by that distinguished artist are carefully preserved in the university. Erasmus died at Bale, and left his valuable library to the same institution; it possesses besides, a collection of twelve thousand Roman medals, and other antiquities found at Augst, the ancient *Augusta Romanorum*, at some distance from the town. The statue of Munatius Plancus, the founder of the colony, may be seen on the tower of the townhouse. The capital, of which the population has decreased since the sixteenth century, is adorned with several fine streets and spacious squares. The hospitals and charitable institutions are richly endowed, and the method of instruction proposed by Pestallozzi, has been adopted with great success in the different schools.

The situation of the town is very romantic. The cathedral stands on a lofty terrace shaded by chesnut trees; it commands an extensive view of the Rhine, but the river assumes the character of an impetuous torrent, more likely to desolate than to fructify or facilitate communications in the country through which it flows. "I could only perceive," says M. Simond, "a single boat in that part of its course;[k] its waters are of a whitish blue colour, not unlike those in the Rhone; indeed it is easy to discover a sort of resemblance between these two large rivers, which indicates their common origin." Little Bale, on the opposite bank, communicates with the town by a bridge built of stone at the two extremities, and of wood at the centre, on account of the depth and rapidity of the current. The mountains in the black Forest bound the horizon towards the north-east. Bale has been more than once overturned by earthquakes; it was desolated by the plague in the sixteenth century, and it has been affirmed that with the exception of one, all the members of its council, fell victims to that disease.

Canton of Soleure. | Soleure is a place of considerable trade; its broad and well-paved streets are adorned with fountains, and a number of baths have been built on the Aar. The principal church is considered one of the finest in Switzerland. The late improvements in the system of education have not yet been adopted in the town, although the advantages have

[1] Ebel's Travels in Switzerland. [k] Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

been acknowledged in the rural districts. The prisons, workhouses, and hospitals in Soleure are much better managed than others in places of greater importance.

Several towns are situated in the canton of Berne; Porentruy carries on a considerable trade in leather; Burkdorf, or, according to its French name, Berthoud, is well known, from the institution founded by Pestalozzi. Many silk-worms are reared at Bienne; its celebrated lake is about three miles in length, one in breadth, and nearly two hundred feet in depth. The houses are painted and built in the form of arcades, and the squares are decorated with old fountains, the most of which were erected during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The long hair of the women descends below their petticoats; it is true that the latter hardly reach to their knees. Canton of Berne.

Berne, or the chief town in this wealthy canton, is well-built, but the streets are gloomy and deserted. The town is kept clean by the numerous fountains and limpid streams which water it. The magistrates have not sacrificed utility to appearances; hospitals and storehouses in which grain is deposited and used in seasons of scarcity, are the first objects that the stranger remarks on entering Berne. The commerce of the town is not very great, but the inhabitants are comparatively affluent; no mendicants are seen on the streets. The edifices and the places worthy of being visited, are, the arsenal, the cathedral that was built in the sixteenth century, the church of the Holy Spirit, finished in 1704, the library, different scientific collections, and the monument in the botanical garden, erected to the memory of the great Haller, who was born in the town. The situation of Berne on a height renders it salubrious, and accounts in some measure for frequent instances of longevity. Berne.

Its name, which is derived from the German word *bœr*, (bear) has given rise to different opinions concerning its origin. It has been supposed that Berthold the Fourth, duke of Zeringen, and the founder of the town, called it Bœrn, from having killed a bear in the vicinity. The figure of the same animal forms the city arms, and it is, perhaps, for these reasons that several bears are still kept in the entrenchments.

Sursee and Sempach are two small towns in the canton of Lucerne; they are agreeably situated at the two extremities of a lake from which the last town has derived its name. But Lucerne is still more remarkable for its fine lake, part of which lies beyond its territory, and is called the lake of the Four Cantons. The mountains of Rigi and Pilate are reflected from the surface of its waters, and the most romantic views may be seen from the chapel of Maria Zell and other high places in the neighbourhood. The broad and modern streets of Lucerne extend from fortifications that were built in the fourteenth century. Wooden bridges are erected across the Reuss, and the one which unites the two quarters, is upwards of thirteen hundred and eighty feet in length. The townhouse is richly adorned; the armour of duke Leopold, and other trophies gained at the battles of Zempach and Morat are deposited in the arsenal. The former of these engagements was fought in 1386, and the latter in 1476. Different antiquities are preserved in the cathedral; the libraries, which are rich in manuscripts, the celebrated models of Switzerland constructed in relievo by general Pfyffer, the learned societies, the colleges, and schools, give the town an importance that forms a striking contrast with its insignificant population. Canton of Lucerne

The canton of Zug is smaller than any other in Switzerland, and its capital of the same name, was probably one of the towns which the Helvetii burned, when they made an invasion into Gaul in the time of Julius Cæsar. Canton of Zug.

Schwitz might be more correctly called a burgh than a town; it is situated at the base of the Mythian mountains; almost all Schwitz.

the houses are ill-built. The pilgrims of Switzerland, and others from many parts of Germany and France, meet at the village of Einsiedeln in the same canton. The convent of the benedictines is supposed to possess a miraculous image of the Virgin, and a piece of silver impressed with the hand of the Saviour. Those who wish to have their sins forgiven, must put their fingers into the five marks in the silver, and drink out of the fourteen pipes that supply the fountain, because from one of them, at present unknown, Jesus quenched his thirst. Rapperschwyl is an old and almost deserted town; but its sombre aspect harmonizes with the romantic country that surrounds it.

Canton of Glaris. | No hostile army invaded the canton of Glaris during more than four hundred years; it was at last devastated by the French, the Austrians, and Russians. Whatever could serve to nourish or clothe troops, was pillaged in 1798. The inhabitants of this rich canton were reduced to poverty; there was a famine in the valley of Sernft, a short time before the precipitate retreat of Souwaroff and the archduke Constantine. Glaris differs from most other towns, its character is wholly Swiss; the antiquated manners of its inhabitants, and their still more ancient habitations, render it like a place of the fifteenth century. The date of their construction is marked on almost all the houses; some of them have stood for more than five hundred years; they are painted with various colours, and on many of them historical events are represented. The streets are crooked and narrow, and so much is the town obscured by the lofty mountains on every side, that, according to an intelligent traveller, the sun is seldom visible for more than four hours in the day.[1] The inhabitants manufacture cloth, cotton stuffs, and muslin.

Canton of Uri. | Altorf, the chief town in the canton of Uri, was rendered illustrious by the liberators of Helvetia. A tower, on which the history of William Tell is represented, stands on the spot formerly occupied by the lime tree, where he aimed at the apple on the head of his son. An old house, now nearly in ruins, is visited by strangers; it belonged to Walter Furst, the father-in-law of William Tell, and one of the heroes of the time.

Canton of Unterwald. | The simplicity and hospitality of ancient times are still observable in the canton of Unterwald. It is divided into two small republics; Stanz, the chief town of the one, is remarkable for a large church, adorned with marble pillars, and Sarnen, the capital of the other, appears in one of the finest vallies in Switzerland. A large fountain formed from a single block of granite has been erected in the market place. The people in the canton carry on a considerable trade in cheese, which is exported into Italy and different parts of Germany.

Canton of Friburg. | Friburg is one of the most important agricultural cantons in Switzerland; it is also highly interesting to the botanist, and its women are distinguished by their beauty and the singularity of their dress. The cheeses of Gruyeres form its principal wealth, and the small town of Morat is celebrated as being the place of the battle in which Charles the Rash was defeated. Friburg, or the capital, is encompassed with ancient walls, but the cathedral is the only remarkable building; its tower may be about three hundred and ninety feet in height. The people appear to be as favourably disposed to antiquated customs and institutions as they are averse to every sort of intellectual improvement. The Jesuits have been lately recalled, they have acquired their ancient influence; the direction of the schools is at present committed to their care. The trade of the town consists in hats, cotton cloths, porcelain, and earthenware.

Canton of Vaud. | The canton of Vaud, one of the largest and most populous in Switzerland, is also the one in which the blessings of knowledge

[1] Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

and education are most diffused. Crimes are of very rare occurrence; not more than seventy or eighty individuals are confined in all the houses of correction, and out of three thousand processes, instituted annually, more than two thousand are settled by the intervention of arbiters or justices of the peace.[n]

Aventicum, the ancient capital of Roman Helvetia, is situated near the lake of Morat; it was formerly more than six miles in circumference. The remains of streets and edifices may still be observed, notwithstanding the ravages of time, and the depredations of ancient and modern barbarians. Ruins, which are supposed to have been once public baths, mosaics, pilastres, and marble columns, the remains of a vast amphitheatre, basso-relievos, and inscriptions, attest its former splendour. The walls of its ancient port, the iron rings to which boats were attached, are still seen; but it is very remarkable that the lake has now receded from it more than a quarter of a league. Tacitus makes mention of *Aventicum*, Vespasian embellished it, but it is at present an ill-peopled burgh, of which the Latin name has been changed into Avenche. The greatest curiosities in the small town of Payerne, are the tomb and the saddle of queen Bertha; an opening appears in the saddle, it was made to hold the distaff of that good queen, who never travelled without it. Yverdun is a place of trade and industry; its inhabitants are distinguished by their urbanity and their taste for the sciences. It was the ancient Ebrodunum, the residence of the commander of the barks, (*prefectus barcariorum.*) Orbe, which was also a Roman town, is still commanded by the ancient castle where Brunehault was betrayed and delivered to Clotaire the Second, by whom she was condemned to death. The small town of Nyon, that rises above the lake of Geneva, possesses a considerable trade in porcelain. Rolle is famous for its wine, Morges for its spears and cannon, but Vevey is perhaps better known than either, from its romantic situation, and from the rocks of the Meillerie, that rise above the lake. A large fountain adorns the market place, which may bear a comparison with any other in Switzerland. The vineyards are productive in the neighbourhood; the husbandmen and vine-dressers join in a festival every four years; it is preceded by a procession, in which the different individuals represent heathen gods and personages in sacred history. Noah and Canaan are seen near Bacchus and Silenus; Noah comes out of his ark, and Silenus is mounted on his ass. The origin of the procession, which was in all probability modified after the establishment of Christianity, is lost in the night of time.[n] Lausanne, a place of some celebrity, situated at a short distance from the site of the ancient *Lausonium*, has its learned and scientific societies; Theodore Beza and Conrad Gessner taught in its academy. The buildings worthy of notice are, the castle, the cathedral commenced in the year 1000, and consecrated by Gregory the tenth, on that occasion accompanied by Rodolphus of Habsburg, and lastly, the house inhabited by Gibbon the historian.

Canton of Geneva.

The scenery round the lake of Geneva is not perhaps so striking as that near other Swiss lakes of a smaller size. Its surface is supposed to be greater than a hundred and fifty-six square miles, but its extent renders it difficult in many places, for the spectator to judge correctly of the distance and height of the summits that encompass it. The mountains seem to be nearer, and consequently less elevated than they really are. The higher extremity is without doubt the finest part of the lake; it may there bear a comparison with the most romantic sites in Germany or Switzerland. The surface of its water is about eleven hundred and twenty-six feet above the level of the sea.[o] The mean depth has been ascertained to be five hundred and sixty feet, and the temperature is warmer at the surface than at the bottom. The lake is subject to a phenomenon

[n] Simond's Travels in Switzerland. [n] Ebel's Description of Switzerland.
[o] According to the calculations of Deluc.

which has not been hitherto satisfactorily explained; in other words, the water has several times been seen to rise four or five feet above its ordinary level in the space of a few hours. To these tides the inhabitants have given the name of *seiches*. It is highly probable that the lake was larger at a former period than at present; indeed the supposition seems to be confirmed by the fact that alluvial deposites are formed at the entrance of the Rhone, while the same river is limpid and transparent at its efflux. The lake, one of the finest in southern Europe, was well known in ancient times by the name of *Leman*, (*Lacus Lemanus*.)

Geneva. | Geneva, the capital of a very small Swiss canton, is situated at its western extremity. But although the canton may be insignificant, both in size and population, it is perhaps the most civilized, industrious and wealthy of any in Switzerland. The houses and buildings in Geneva are little worthy of notice, the streets are narrow, and the town is divided into two unequal parts by the rapid waters of the Rhone; but the natural beauties of the vicinity are varied and imposing. The superiority of Geneva over other places in Switzerland is of an intellectual nature; literature and science have been cultivated with no ordinary success since the Reformation. Much has been done for whatever is connected with education or instruction. Sixty thousand volumes and a great many manuscripts are contained in the library. The college founded by Calvin consists of different chairs, such as theology, law, medicine, and other branches of literature and science. The observatory is provided with good instruments, and the botanical garden abounds with valuable plants; lastly, several learned and scientific societies diffuse among every rank a taste for useful knowledge; to these causes, and to the influence of a rigid worship, may perhaps be attributed the virtue and morality of which the inhabitants of both sexes are distinguished in Geneva.

Canton of Valais. | The valley of the Rhone, which forms the wealthy canton of Valais, was called in ancient times *Vallis Pennina*, either from the god Penninus, or from the celtic word *pen*, which signifies a *point* or *sharp summit*, a denomination strictly applicable to most of the mountains that surround the valley. Saint Maurice, remarkable for its buildings and its fine abbey, is the first burgh that the stranger enters who ascends the Rhone. Between it and Martigny, another burgh, part of which has been called the town, is situated the lofty cataract that ought not certainly to be denominated the *Pisse-Vache*. It falls from a perpendicular height of three hundred feet, not eight hundred, as some authors have stated. At no great distance above it, on the right bank of the Rhone, Sion, the capital of the canton, and the *Ectodurum* of the Romans, exhibits its three castles built one above another. The diocese of Sion is considered the most ancient in Switzerland. The principal buildings are two convents, an hospital, an episcopal palace and ten churches. The village of Albinen is situated near the baths of Leuk, between Sion and Brieg; it is only accessible, says a traveller, by means of eight ladders supported on precipitous rocks and steep declivities. The inhabitants, men, women, and children, ascend the ladders day and night, many of them with burdens on their heads, without imagining the road to be worse than any other.[p] Brieg, one of the finest burghs in Valais, may be distinguished at a distance by its houses covered with micaceous schistus of a brilliant silver colour; its baths were formerly as much frequented as those at Leuk.

Canton of Tesino. | The canton of Tesino is the poorest, and the people are the most ignorant of any in Switzerland. The finest silk in the district is obtained at Lugano, a small town situated on the banks of a lake. Several buildings in the burgh of Locarno on the lake of Maggiore announce its former prosperity. Bellinzone, an insignificant town, is situated

[p] Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

on the banks of the Tesino; the gymnasium is the only institution, from which it might be inferred the Bellinzone was the capital of the canton.

Canton of the Grisons.

If Berne be excepted, the canton of the Grisons is the most important in Switzerland; it formed part of Rhætia in the time of the Romans. Tusis, situated in the midst of mountains, on a feeder of the Rhine that descends from mount Bernardino, has been supposed, probably on account of its name, to have been built by the ancient Tussi or Tuscans, who found shelter in the country when Belloveses invaded Italy. Although a very small town, it is better built than any other in the canton. Coire or the Plessur; a feeder of the Rhine, is more populous than Tusis; it is the capital of the Grisons, and the ancient *Curia Rhætorum;* its cathedral has stood during ten centuries, but the episcopal palace is a finer building.

Helvetic confederation.

The canton of Neuchatel which has alredy been described in the account of Prussia, forms also a part of the Helvetic confederation. It is the only canton in which monarchial forms of government are modified by republican institutions. Although the rest are not all governed in the same way, all of them are independent, and united to each other by a conservative compact. They may be divided into three classes; the first or Schaffhausen, Zurich, Bale, Soleure, Berne, Lucerne and Friburg are so many mixed aristocratic governments, in other words, several privileged families among the burgesses are called to form part of the small council to which the executive power is committed; the second, as Thurgau, Argua, Saint-Gall Vaud, Geneva, Valais and Tesino are representative republics; the people elect the members of the great council, which deliberates with the executive department of the petty council. Lastly, the people of Appenzell, Zug, Schwitz, Uri, Glaris, and Unterwald live under a democratic government, similar to those of Greece and Rome; the citizens form general assemblies (*Landsgemeinde,*) they nominate their magistrates and deliberate on the interest of the republic. The important affairs of the confederation are laid before the diet, which is composed of deputies from twenty-two cantons. The virtue and love of country, so characteristic of the Swiss, are fostered and strengthened by their political institutions; hence the principal literary and patriotic societies assemble in the different capitals, and bring together the fruits of their labour and research.

Army.

Every artisan in Switzerland, is a soldier at the age of twenty; he must be enrolled in a company, he must arm and clothe himself according to the uniform of his canton. Each canton, in the event of a war, furnishes a contingent, and all of their contingents make up an army of thirty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-eight men. But Switzerland might easily levy double the number of troops. To provide for the maintainance of the army and other expenses, each canton imposes on itself a tax proportionate to its population and resources. But the amount of the contributions varies according to the revisions which are made of them. The debt of the confederation was equal in 1826 to 125,000*l.*, and the revenue to 500,000*l.*

The allied powers have recognized by the treaty of Paris, the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland. But fully sensible that the weak ought to place little reliance on the promises of the strong, the Swiss formed the project of raising works of defence in Saint Maurice, and in some defiles in Valais, it is also intended to fortify a central place where troops may be speedily collected in time of danger. The Swiss may find formidable means of resistance in the nature of their territory and in their enthusiasm for liberty; taught by experience, they may avoid the errors which led to the invasion and conquest of their country.

STATISTICAL TABLES OF SWITZERLAND.

Population of the Principal Towns, and Contingents of the Twenty-two Cantons, classed according to the order and the rank they hold in the confederation.

Cantons.	Contingent.	Towns and burghs.	Population
1 Zurich	3,700 men	Zurich	10,400
		Winterthur	3,300
2 Berne	5,824	Berne	17,600
		Thun	3,700
3 Lucerne	1,734	Lucerne	6,100
		Sursee	3,700
4 Uri	236	Altorf	1,700
5 Schwitz	602	Schwitz	4,900
6 Uterwald { Obwalden 221, Nidwalden 161 }	382	Einsiedeln	3,200
		Sarnen	3,500
		Stanz	2,200
7 Glaris	482	Glaris	4,100
8 Zug	250	Zug	2,900
9 Friburg	1,240	Friburg	6,500
10 Soleure	904	Soleure	4,000
11 Bale	918	Bale	16,300
12 Schaffhausen	466	Schaffhausen	7,000
13 Appenzell { Ausser-Rhoden 772, Inner-Rhoden 200 }	972	Appenzell	3,200
		Herisau	7,000
14 Saint-Gall	2,630	Saint-Gall	9,000
15 Grisons	1,600	Coire	3,400
		Tusis	3,400
16 Argau	2,410	Arau	3,500
		Baden	1,700
		Zofingen	1,700
		Arburg	1,100
17 Thurgau	1,520	Fraunfeld	1,800
		Bisehofzell	2,000
18 Tessino	1,804	Bellinzone	1,200
		Lugano	3,602
		Locarno	1,500
19 Vaud	2,984	Lausane	10,200
		Vevey	3,800
		Yverdun	2,500
		Nion	2,100
		Morges	2,000
20 Valais	1,280	Sion	2,400
21 Neuchatel	960	Neuchatel	5,000
22 Geneva	880	Geneva	25,000

POPULATION AND SURFACE OF SWITZERLAND, CONVENTS, &c.

CANTONS.	POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS IN 1822.				POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT LANGUAGES OF THE INHABITANTS.			Total population in 1821. a	Total population in 1826. b	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population for every square league.	Convents.
	Reformists.	Catholics.	Anabaptists.	Jews.	Germans.	French and Savoyard.	Italian.					
Zurich	191,700	1,350			193,050			193,050	218,000	124	1,772	
Berne	300,500	41,700	900		291,100	52,000		343,100	350,000	476	736	
Lucerne		103,900			103,900			103,900	116,000	100	1,171	10
Uri		12,000			12,000			12,000	13,000	67	196	3
Schwitz		34,900			34,900			34,900	32,000	61	663	5
Unterwald		21,800			21,800			21,800	24,000	33	727	5
Glaris	25,815	3,285			29,100			29,100	28,000	58	482	
Zug		15,000			15,000			15,000	14,500	15	966	3
Friburg	5,100	67,400			27,310	45,100		72,500	84,000	64	1,333	19
Soleure	4,200	49,200			53,700			53,700	53,000	35	1,514	9
Bale	45,900	5,900			51,800			51,800	54,000	34	1,588	
Schaffhausen	26,900	200			27,100			27,100	30,000	22	1,363	
Appenzell	41,200	13,800			55,000			55,000	52,500	19	2,763	
Saint-Gall	81,829	61,371			143,179			143,179	144,000	111	1,309	14
Grisons	49,000	34,000			30,200	41,500	11,800	83,500	88,000	386	228	
Argau	76,500	68,800		1,700	147,000			147,000	150,000	100	1,515	6
Thurgau	63,900	19,000			82,900			82,900	81,000	46	1,760	11
Tesino		95,000			900		94,900	95,800	102,000	148	693	22
Vaud	155,000	3,200			5,200	53,000		158,000	170,000	198	862	
Valais		67,400			21,080	41,200	5,120	67,400	70,000	254	276	7
Neuchatel	50,000	2,200				52,200		52,200	51,500	37	1,396	
Geneva	27,080	14,400		270		42,100		42,100	52,500	12	4,375	
	Luth. 350											
	1,144,974	737,406	900	1,970	1,346,219	427,190	111,820	1,885,229	1,978,000	2,400		114

a According to the statistical tables of M. Hassel. b According to documents in possession of M. Adrian Balbi, in December 1826.

SWISS NEWSPAPERS.

The total number of Newspapers, published in Switzerland in 1826, *amounted to twenty-eight. Those that have most circulation are the following:—*

GERMAN NEWSPAPERS.

1 Swiss Messenger, (Schweizer-Bothe) published once a week at Arau.
2 General Correspondent of Switzerland (Allgemein Schweizerisch. Corresp.) published twice a week at . . Schauffhausen.
3 Friday's Gazette, (Zürcher Freytags Zeitung) at . . Zurich.
4 New Gazette, (Neue-Zürcher Zeitung) thrice a week at Zurich.
5 The Narrator, (Erzoehler) once a week at . . Saint Gall.
6 The Zug Gazette, (Zuger Zeitung) once a week at . . Zug.
7 The Friend of the Swiss, (Schweizer Freund) once a week at Berne.

FRENCH NEWSPAPERS.

8 Lausane Gazette, twice a week at . . . . . Lausane.
9 Vaudois Journal, twice a week at . . . . . Lausane.
10 Journal of Geneva, at . . . . . Geneva.
11 Bibliotheque Universelle, (a Scientific Journal) once a month at Geneva.

ITALIAN JOURNALS.

12 Swiss Courier, (Couriere Suizzere) twice a week at . Lugano.
13. Tesino Gazette (Gazette Ticineze) once a week at . Lugano.

Number of Strangers whose Passports have been examined at Geneva from the 1*st of January to the* 30*th of November,* 1825.

Germans	1,850
Swiss	3,559
French	3,058
English	1,539
Piemontese and Savoyards	3,094
Italians	553
Americans	88
Danes and Swedes	45
Russians	116
Total	13,902

BOOK CXXXI.

EUROPE.

Italy—First Section—Physical Geography of Italy.

GERMANY is not without interest, from the great events of which it has been the theatre, from the historical associations connected with it, from the advances which have been made in literature and science, from the genius

and character of its inhabitants. It is almost impossible to visit without emotion the picturesque vallies and lofty mountains in Switzerland, the only country in Europe whose inhabitants have preserved the simplicity of patriarchal manners. The azure sky of Italy, its enchanting climate, and matchless pieces of art, render it widely different, either from Germany or Switzerland. The stranger hardly arrives at the southern base of the Alps, before he observes new vegetation, new manners, and new customs. It seems as if a country favourable to the laurel, the myrtle, and the olive, excites man to the love of glory, renders him better adapted for the advantages of civilization. Italy produced the people that conquered the world; the poets and writers who shed a lustre over it, and the arts introduced by the Greeks, rendered it formerly the most civilized country in Europe; and when barbarism extended its iron sceptre over the same quarter of the earth, even during the period of the crusades, knowledge found an asylum in Italy, from which it was afterwards diffused over ultramontane countries. Although monks, wretchedness, and superstition have now established their degrading empire, Italy is still the fairest portion of Europe.

Limits of Italy.

Considered according to its natural limits, the northern part of Italy comprehends all the country enclosed by the Alps, from the branch called the Cottian, to the Julian Alps. But these natural limits have been modified by political boundaries. Thus the northern part of Italy is situated between the gulf of Trieste, and the Rhone, at its efflux from the lake of Geneva; hence it follows that the Rhone, the Pennine Alps, the extremity of the Adriatic gulf, and the Mediterranean, separate Italy from France, Switzerland, and Germany. The Adriatic gulf and the Mediterranean, extend along the coasts of Italy, to the declivities of the maritime Alps, near the frontiers of France. The length of the country, from north-east to south-west, is about seven hundred and fifty miles, its breadth towards the north, about four hundred, in the centre, a hundred and twenty-five, in the south a hundred, and at the entrance into Calabria from twenty-five to thirty. The extent of the surface, including Sicily, Sardinia, and all the petty islands, has been supposed equal to ninety-seven thousand two hundred English square miles; that of the islands, only amounts to sixteen thousand eight hundred.

Mountains.

The principal mountains in Italy are, the Pennine Alps, or the chain that extends from Mount Rose to Mount Blanc, the Greek Alps, between Mount Blanc and Mount Cenis; the Cottian Alps, between Mount Cenis and Mount Viso; lastly, the Cottian Alps, which extend from Mount Viso to the Col de Tende. These different chains follow an irregular direction from north to south. The long chain of the Apenines stretches from the Tanaro to the extremity of Italy. All these mountains are connected with the same range. The Alps, the Rhœtian and Apenine chains extend from Mount Blanc, as from a common mass. The Apenines, which shall be more particularly described, may be equal in length to six hundred and seventy miles. They are divided into three parts; the northern Apenines extend from the neighbourhood of Urbino to the Adriatic gulf; the central Apenines terminate near the banks of the Sangro; the southern Apenines, situated at an equal distance from the two seas, form two branches near Muro; the least important separates the territory of Barri from that of Otranto; the other, composed of lofty mountains, traverses both Calabrias, and terminates near Aspromonte.

Capes.

The chain of the Alps is much more precipitous on the side of Italy, than towards France, Switzerland, and Germany; the Apenines are not so lofty; several branches issue from them, and the most important form capes on the Mediterranean and the Adriatic gulf. Piombino stands on one of these headlands, but the largest is the one that forms the Campanella point at the entrance into the gulf of Naples. The points

or extremities of chains are not so numerous on the Adriatic; still, the last declivities of a branch extend to the gulf of Tarento, and form cape Leuca. The principal branch which reaches to the southern extremity of the continent, enters the sea and appears again in Sicily. The Apenine chain passes throughout its whole extent nearer the western than the opposite coast of Italy.

Plains. The plains in the same country are not less remarkable; that of Lombardy may be considered the finest and most fruitful in Europe, perhaps in the world. Another plain, situated between the gulf of Naples, Vesuvius, and the Apenines, is less extensive, but almost as fertile as the last. The plains on the other side of the same chain, although smaller, are equally productive; they extend along the shores of the Adriatic, on the territory of Bari, and near the gulf of Manfredonia.

Rivers. The rivers that water Italy, differ from each other in size, according as they descend from the Alps or the Apenines. The Po, the largest of them all, takes its source from Mount Viso. Enlarged by the streams of the Tanaro, the Trebia, the Taro, and the Panaro, which unite on its right bank, augmented on the left by the Doria, the Orca, the Sezia, the Tesino, the Adda, and the Oglio, it throws itself, after a course of a hundred and twenty leagues, into the Adriatic gulf. The Tagliamento, the Piave, the Brenta, and the Adige, rise from the Alps, and enter the same gulf. Those that rise from the Apenines, and fall into the Mediterranean, are, the Arno, which throws itself into the gulf of Genoa, and the Tiber, which enters the sea near Ostia.

Lakes. The largest lakes are situated on the side of the Rhetian Alps; such are the lake Maggiore, and on the east those of Como, Iseo, and Garda, the greatest in Italy. When contrasted with these, the lakes of Perugia, Bolzena, and Fucino may appear insignificant; they succeed each other, in a direction from north-west to south-east, on the eastern declivities of the Apenines.

Climate. The fine climate of Italy may have contributed to render its mineral waters as much frequented as those in Germany. The gaseous sources at Saint Julian, the baths of Montecatini, the springs at Saint Cassian, and the celebrated baths at Lucca, bring together many strangers into Tuscany. The gaseous springs in the kingdom of Naples are so numerous that they appear to be connected with volcanic phenomena; it may be enough to mention those of Santa Lucia, Pisciarelli, Pozzuoli, and the four sources at Ischia. The baths of Albano, near Padua, others at Rocoaro, in the neighbourhood of Vicenza; the thermal springs of Acqui, Vinadio, and Oleggio, in the kingdom of Sardinia, and lastly, the mineral waters near Parma, are all frequented by invalids.

The land, from the north to the south of Italy, may be divided into four distinct regions and four different zones. The northern, which extends from the Alps to the Apenines, is often exposed to intense cold; Reaumur's thermometer descends sometimes to ten degrees below zero. The olive, the lemon, and other fruits of the same sort, never flourish. The second reaches to the course of the Sangro; the winters are mild, the olive and the wild orange resist it, but the sweet orange does not succeed in the open air. The Seville orange and the lemon thrive almost without culture, in the next region, which terminates near the banks of the Crati. Although frosty weather is not unknown, it is of rare occurrence in the low grounds. The last zone is exposed to a burning climate; the aloé and the Indian fig tree grow on the plains and near the shores of the sea; the highest summits are covered with snow in winter.

Vegetation. Few countries are so fruitful as the first region, which occupies all the valley of the Po; it produces a great quantity of rice and different sorts of grain, one of which the Italians use in making their ma-

caroni and other pastry of the same sort. The finest meadows and the fattest cattle in Italy may be seen in the same valley or in others that communicate with it. Cheese forms a considerable branch of exportation, the wines are of a good quality, particularly those in Friuli, Vicentino, Bolognese, and Montferrat.

The second region does not abound in pasturage or corn; the cultivated lands and the meadows are situated on the declivities of the mountains; their verdure is varied by the pale olive and other trees covered with fruit. As part of the third region is unhealthy, it has been termed the country of *malaria;* it is covered in many places with rich pastures and numerous flocks.

The fig-tree, the almond, the cotton plant, the sugar-cane and the grape that produces the burning wines of Calabria, are cultivated in the last region, and the vegetation resembles that in the finest countries of Africa. The bombix produces a coarser silk than in other parts of Italy; the cause has been attributed to the nature of its food, the leaves of the black mulberry tree. The luxuriant branches of the vine twine round the lofty poplar, but it has been remarked that the wines obtained from the low vineyards are superior to the wines produced from those of which the elegant wreaths descend from the summits of the highest trees. If the grapes of the two sorts be mingled, the wine becomes acid and disagreeable.

Italy produces all the fruit trees that flourish in the temperate regions of Europe, and some of its plants thrive only in high temperatures; such are the *diospyrus lotus*, of which the yellow and acid fruits, in size not unlike cherries, are only eaten by children and the poor; the *milia azedarach*, a tree adorned with clusters of pale blue flowers that diffuse a pleasant fragrance, the pomegranate, brought from Carthage into Italy, by the Romans, the azarola, (*crotægus azarolus*,) a sort of medlar tree, producing fruit of a bright red colour, yielding a refreshing juice, that the people often drink in southern Italy; the carob tree, (*ceratonia siliqua*,) the lentisc pistachio tree, of which the oil is used in cookery and in burning; lastly, the round leaved ash, (*fraxinus rotondifolia*,) the precious tree of Calabria, that yields the manna of commerce.

Animals.

Several animals in Italy are common to different parts of southern Europe; others are peculiar to its climate and its mountains, which serve as a retreat for the lynx, the chamois, the wild goat, the ferret, the dormouse, and the lemming, a small Norwegian rat, well known on account of its migrations. The porcupine is found in different parts of the Apenines; there are, besides, many oxen that the inhabitants call buffaloes, which are tamed in the south of Italy. The Neapolitan horses are strong and well made, the ass and the mule are of an excellent kind, and the sheep may be compared to those in Spain. The birds are very numerous,—in the maritime Alps only, three hundred and six different species have been counted.

Some snakes in the south, are common to that region, with the northern part of Africa; the most noxious are the large asp and the viper.

Fish.

The Mediterranean abounds with fish and molluscæ. The depths of that sea are inhabited by *alepocephalis*, *pomatomis*, and *lepidoleprés*. In the higher region are found molvi, whitings, and castagnolli; at a thousand feet below the surface, the most common fish are rays, *lophides*, *pleuronectes*, and others of the same sort. The region of corals and madrepores, lies at five hundred feet below the surface; the animals that frequent them are *balistæ*, *labra*, and *trigli*. Alga and different sea weeds vegetate at a less depth, and that part of the sea is the region of the murenæ, the stromatens, and araneus piscis. The rocks nearer the surface are covered with different sorts of fucus, and serve to shelter centrines, and all the fish that are taken near the shore. Lastly, in the coasts cover-

ed with gravel and with sand, are found the sparus, anchovies, mugils, and different molluscæ.[a]

Cuttle fish, Nautilus, &c. | The cuttle fish is by no means uncommon in the Mediterranean; when in danger, it discharges a black liquor, which has been called *sepia*, and thus conceals itself from its enemies. Another molluscæ may be mentioned, which has been described by Aristotle and Pliny; it is known by the name of the Argonaut, or the nautilus. That singular animal, of which the transparent and fragile shell, shaped like a skiff, has been supposed to have given man the notion of the earliest boats, and the earliest lessons in navigation. Endowed with intelligence sufficient for its preservation, a provision indispensable for the mariner, as soon as the tempest begins to agitate the billows, it shuts itself in its shell, and descends to the bottom of the waters. When calm weather returns, it extends its arms out of its light bark, and rises to the surface. It empties or fills its vessel at pleasure, with a quantity of water sufficient for ballast; it is impelled by its arms, which act as oars, and if the breeze be not too strong, it raises two of them, extends the membrane that unites them, and uses it as a sail for accelerating its course, while another arm descends behind the shell, into the water, and acts as a helm.

Winds. | The south winds are very disagreeable in the kingdom of Naples and in Sicily, but the south-east, or the *sirocco*, is the most oppressive of any. When it prevails, the light of day is obscured, the leaves of plants are rolled, as if they had been stung by a destructive insect, and men are exposed to a languor and uneasiness, that render them incapable of exertion. It may be considered fortunate that the sirocco prevails more in winter than in summer.

Geological structure. | Italy affords ample scope for meditation to the geologist. The Alpine limestone country commences towards the north of Belluno, and these rocks are covered with calcareous oolithes, in horizontal strata, from which red sandstone rises.[b] Springs, impregnated with hydrogen, issue from the limestone in the valley of Pieva di Cadora. Nineteen mines are situated in the same valley; lead, mixed with silver, is obtained from the mountain of Jiau, which consists also of calcareous rocks; oxide of iron and sulphuretted lead are found in the mountain of Gregni. The geologist observes in the territory of Vicenza, calcareous substances, analogous to chalk, higher deposites, and ancient volcanic rocks; in the last, are contained globules of chalcedony, filled with air and water. The lava alternates in the heights of Monte-Bolca, with schistous limestone abounding in fossil fish. Green sandstone forms the nucleus of all the calcareous heights that extend through Friuli, and of the low hills, in Oltre-Piane. The Veronese exhibits the same arrangements; the limestone rocks are filled with organic remains. Hills, covered with shells, rise to the height of sixteen hundred feet, in the dutchy of Parma, and in Placenza;—they command the course of the Po; their strata are inclined from ten to twenty degrees towards the north.

Diminution of the sea. | The Po, which traverses a great extent of country, similar to the neighbourhood of Paris, carries along with it, like every great river, the soil near its banks, and the remains of mountains that encompass it. The continual action of its water, accumulates at its embouchure, deposites, which are every day encroaching on the limits of the sea. It may be proved that, since the year 1604, when it was attempted to confine its banks by dikes, the deposites which the river brings down, have been so much heaped in the lower part of its course, that the surface of its water is now higher than the tops of the houses in Ferrara.[c] The

[a] Histoire naturelle des principales productions de l'Europe meridionale, par M. Risso, tom. III.

[b] Memoir of M. Catillo. Giornale di Phisica-Chemica.

[c] See the work of M. de Proni. Systeme Hydraulique de l'Italie.

sea has receded, since the same period, the distance of three leagues. The ancient Hatria, or modern Adria, was once a famous port, it gave its name to the Adriatic gulf, it is now more than eight leagues from the shore. It has been calculated that the annual encroachments made by these deposites, amount to four hundred feet;[d] that calculation appears to be overrated; but it is certain, that the labours of men have greatly contributed to augment the deposites. They may be ascertained with sufficient accuracy; in the twelfth century, Adria was about thirty, or, according to others, thirty-four thousand feet from the sea; at the end of the sixteenth century, when a new passage was made for the river, the remotest promontories, formed by the deposites, were sixty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five feet distant from Adria. These distances are believed to be correct; and it follows, that the annual extent of the encroachments, was equal, on an average, to eighty-four feet. But the successive additions have been much greater since the end of the sixteenth century; if it be recollected that the furthest limits of these alluvial lands are at present 108,334 feet from the meridian of Adria, it might be shown that they are enlarged every year, by more than two hundred and thirty-three feet. The Po was formerly subject to inundations, every forty or fifty years; they are now more frequent. The deposites brought down by the Brenta, render it not improbable that Venice may share the fate of Adria. The Euganean mountains, a group of volcanic heights, are situated in the vast alluvial plains, on the east of the Adige, and the town of Este.

Fossil bones.

Although fossil shells are very common in Lombardy and Piemonte, the light lands which cover the marine deposites, abound, in many places, with the bones of elks, mastodontes, elephants, rhinoceros, and other large quadrupeds. The bones of cetaceous animals have been found in the hills, near Placenza; others, which are now extinct, inhabited the Apenines and the Alps, before man established his dominion in these regions.

Apenines.

The chain of the Apenines may be divided into two distinct parts; the one is composed of granite, euphotides, and serpentine, which constitutes the nucleus of the mountains; the other is formed of what has been termed saccharine calcareous and compact calcareous rocks; above them, are silicious strata, and the sandstone known by the name of macigno. The first calcareous rocks are considered primitive; quarries of fine white marble are worked in them; the most valuable, are those near Carrara, on the western side of the northern Apenines. But, towards the north, ancient calcareous rocks, and others, of an intermediate epoch, serve as a support for lands of the last formation, in which are found argil mixed with shells, and other deposites, containing wood, and the fruits of different coniferous trees.[e] The same ternary lands, extend from the base of the central Apenines; they form hills, consisting chiefly of marl and calcareous or silicious sand, containing sulphur, mineral pitch, and salt. Organic remains are so abundant, that a naturalist believes them to be more numerous than all the animals in the Mediterranean.[f]

Granite rocks are more common in the southern Apenines, from the mountains of Conegliano, to the extremity of Italy, than in the rest of the chain. They are of a yellow colour, of a granulated and imperfectly crystallized texture; they seem to be part of an intermediate formation. Calcareous hills rise in different directions, near the shores of the sea. Saline deposites are situated at the base of the Aspromonte in Eastern Calabria; the most extensive are found in the neighbourhood of Lungro.

The existence of a sea, now filled with fresh water lakes, on the western

[d] Breslak, instructions geologiques.

[e] Memoire sur les bassins tertiares de Gênes et de des environs, by M. Pareto. Ann. des sciences nat. tome i. page 86.

[f] Breslak, Institutions geologiques, tome ii. page 206.

part of the central Apenines, is attested by the nature of the soil; volcanic products have been amassed in the same region, at a period anterior to the commencement of history. In one place are macignos, in another, travertines, the most modern of the calcareous rocks; their formation has been attributed to mineral springs, containing carbonic acid. They were used in building many monuments of ancient Rome, and they are found in extensive strata, in the neighbourhood of that town. Other calcareous rocks that are still forming, indicate the course which nature has followed in the most remote periods. The waters that descend from the chain of Mount Velino, hold in suspension carbonate of lime, which is deposited in the lake Velino, and also at the falls of Terni and Tivoli. The reader may have some notion of the manner in which the calcareous substances are deposited, from the account of an intelligent naturalist. "The celebrated falls of Tivoli, are not connected with the steep calcareous rocks, of which these hills, (those that command Rome,) consist; they are formed by the deposites of streams and rivers, that issue from the vallies, and were, in ancient times, more surcharged with calcareous sediment, than at present. The undulating forms that these deposites assume, forms that are not seen in the plains, are owing to the agitation produced by the waters; their less abundant precipitation, may, perhaps, account for their crystalline texture, different from travertine; and resembling alabaster.

"The same arrangement, attributable to the same causes, may be seen in all its details, at the lofty falls of Terni. The traveller observes, in the neighbourhood, and in the lower parts of the travertine, fresh water deposites of compact limestone. Near Rieti, at the confluence of the Velino and the Nera, that small river precipitates the same deposites at its cascade, in the same way, and on the same sort of soil, as at Tivoli."[s]

Calcareous deposites from the waters of San Felippo.

These calcareous substances are, in some places, of a brownish red colour; fresh water shells have often been found in them, but in other places they are pure white. At no great distance from a hill, evidently of late formation, to the north-west of Radicofani, and near the frontiers of Tuscany, the waters of San Felippo, to which invalids resort, deposite a very fine, and very white sediment; the minute particles are put into moulds, and by their incrustations, bas-reliefs are formed.

Volcanic Phenomena.

The lakes, into which the ancient travertine was deposited, in the neighbourhood of Rome, have formed the Quirinal, the Aventine, the Mounts Marius and Cœlius; but the Janiculum and the rock of the Vatican attest, by their molluscæ, the presence of salt water. Other rocks and volcanic products, conglomerated by a calcareous cement, form the soil of the ancient city. Some deposites in the vicinity, contain bones, belonging to terrestrial animals, of which the species are now extinct.

Two distinct tracts of volcanic matter, extend from the banks of the Po, to the extremity of Italy, the one from the eastern sides of the Apenines, to Abruzzo, near the banks of the Sangro; the other passes from the opposite side into Sicily. At the two extremities of these volcanic products, are exhibited the phenomena of air volcanoes, in which hydrogen gas is the principal agent. Some of them may be described in the account of Sicily; but the one at Sassuolo, not far from Modena, is visited by all the curious; a piece of wood, plunged into that oozy volcano, makes the water rise in the form of a jet. Below the sides of the Apenines, that extend towards the Gulf of Naples, craters of different epochs, are heaped on the soil, now trodden by man; and fields are fertilized by decomposed lava. All the plain of Campania is covered with similar substances; and Naples is built on former currents of lava. According to Spallanzani, the lakes of Averno and Agnano might have been ancient craters.

[s] De quelques terrains d'eau douce postérieurs au calcaire grossier hors du bassin de Paris, by M. Brongniart, tome ii. seconde partie, pag. 552; des Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles, by M. Cuvier.

The Solfatara, the remains of an elliptically formed volcano, no longer emits sulphureous vapours, but the cavernous soil resounds under the traveller, and the sulphur and alum which are extracted from it, seem to form an exhaustless source of wealth. Solfatara.

The Grotto del Cane has lost much of its celebrity, since several volcanic caverns, emitting carbonic acid, have been discovered in other countries. Grotto del Cane.

The lake Lucerno was formerly more extensive, but the eruption, in the month of September, 1538, raised a small volcano in the midst of it, from which flames issued during seven days, and the lava forms, at present, a hill,—the Monte Nuovo, four hundred feet in height, and eight thousand in circumference at its base. Lake Lucerno.

Vesuvius rises above all the modern volcanoes in the territory of Naples. As active as it was nearly eight hundred years ago, it is considered the only one in Europe, from which different kinds of rock are thrown, and not altered. In the last eruption, which happened in 1822, its height was diminished by more than a hundred feet. The most northern point, or summit, may be about three thousand eight hundred feet in height. The walls of the crater are formed by successive strata of lava, from which the number of eruptions might almost be calculated. Prismatic lava, as regular as the finest basaltic prisms, has several times been seen in the conical cavity. Somma, which was the summit of Vesuvius, in the time of Strabo, encompasses part of it at present, and is only separated from it by the volcanic hill of Cantaroni. Near the summit, the lava resounds beneath the feet, and seems about to be swallowed in the gulf it encloses. Hot vapours issue from a great many holes or crevices, lined with beautiful efflorescences of sulphur; and if a piece of wood or paper be placed near them, it takes fire in a few seconds. Vesuvius.

Vesuvius stands isolated, in the middle of a plain, and as it is formed by matter thrown from the bowels of the earth, its mass gives the exact measure of the cavity from which the different substances are impelled. The land round its base is divided into small but very fruitful farms; the richness of the soil that decomposed lava forms, may be inferred from the number of inhabitants, in proportion to the surface. Each square league contains five thousand individuals. The stranger may wonder at the security of the population, for, apparently, men, women, and children are threatened with destruction at every instant; but it is well known that every eruption may be predicted by certain signs. The earth is shaken, a hollow noise is heard below it, the wells and springs are dried, and terrified animals wander about the country. Warned of the danger, man has time to escape, and to secure whatever is most precious. Clouds of smoke are emitted from the volcano, in the intervals between the eruptions.

The natural riches of Italy consist rather in mineral, than in metallic substances; such are the serpentine on the southern sides of the Alps, the porphyry of the Apenines, the marble of Carrara, the alabaster of Volterra, the marble of Stazzema, composed of different coloured fragments, the black marble of Pistoia, the green of Prato, the brocatello of Piombino, the limestone of Florence, on which are represented ruins and beautiful plants, formed by molecules of magnesia, the sulphated barites of Mount Paderno, which is transformed by calcination, into the paste called Bologna phosphorus, the jaspers of Barga, the calcedonies of Tuscany, the lapis lazuli near Sienna, the jargon of Vicentino, the garnet of Piemont, the hyacynthus of Vesuvius, and the mines of Sicily and Sardinia. Minerals.

Numerous islands form a considerable portion of the Italian territory; the largest are Sicily and Sardinia, we might even Islands.

add Corsica, for, considered physically, it forms a detached portion of the latter. The next in point of extent are, Malta, Gozzo, and Pentellaria, to the south of Sicily; then the islands of Eolus or Lipari between Sicily and the continent; Ischia and Capri, at the entrance into the Gulf of Naples; lastly, the island of Elba, between Tuscany and Corsica.

Sicily. | Sicily, situated between Europe and Africa, is the largest island in the Mediterranean. Its length from south-east to north-west, may be about a hundred and fifty-five miles, its mean breadth nearly sixty-two, and its surface, nine thousand six hundred and eighty-three square miles. A mountainous chain, the continuation of the Apenines, is divided into three branches, and their three extremities terminate in as many capes, namely, Rasocolmo, on the north-east, San Vito, on the north-west, and cape Palo, on the south-east. Three great declivities are thus formed in the triangular mass of the island; many streams and rivers descend from them; the largest are the Belici, the Platani, and Salso, on the south, and the Giaretta on the east; the side on the north is narrow and rapid; no rivers rise from it.

Rocks. | The rocks that form the nucleus of the Sicilian mountains, according to Spallanzani,[h] are a sort of granite that decomposes readily, but from the characters he assigns to it, one might suppose it of a later formation than that of organized beings, and that it was included in the list of syenites, diorites and protogynes.[i] It serves as a support for calcareous rocks abounding with madrepores and marine molluscæ. Argillaceous schistus and fossil fish have been seen in different parts of the island. The Italian naturalist observed on the sea shore, pudding stones and sandstone, in which the pebbles and the grains of sand were united by a calcareous cement, still forming under the water; they are most abundant in the neighbourhood of Messina. Witnesses assured M. Spallanzani that they had found in the sand where the cement is produced, the heads of arrows, medals and human bones; thus the process of nature may still be discerned in the formation of certain rocks.

Mount Ætna. | Mount Gibello or Ætna, a volcano so immense, that Vesuvius in comparison seems merely a hill, rises on the eastern side of Sicily. It is divided into three vegetable zones, that of the sugar cane, secondly, the vine and olive, lastly, boreal plants. The greatest eruption of late years took place in 1812; it lasted six months; another that happened in 1819, has been described by a traveller who witnessed it, and observed the lava flowing below him; it formed a current of sixty feet in breadth on the mountain, and twelve hundred at its base. It desolated the country to the distance of two leagues, and set fire to the trees which it touched. The stones discharged from another crater above the one by which the lava issued, rose apparently to the height of a thousand feet.[k]

Air volcanoes. | Several volcanoes similar to those near Modena, that emit clouds of air and dust, are situated in the island; among others, the one of Valanghe della Lalomba, another at Terra Pilata, and a third at Maculaba. The first is the least important, its movements are wholly checked during very hot weather. The second, observed some years ago for the first time by Father La Via, consists of an eminence in which there are several clefts; from a great many small cones, gas and ooze rise to the height of six or seven feet; other cones about five feet in depth emit streams of hydrogen. The volcano at Macolaba is somewhat different; its small craters discharge bubbles of gas, which breaking the clay that covers them, produce a noise like that occasioned by a cork bursting from a bottle. A salt spring issues from the little hill, and in the calcareous

[h] Travels in the two Sicilies. [i] See the article Roches in the Dictionnaire de Geographie phisique de l'Enclyclopédie méthodique, by M. Huet.

[k] Lettres de M. Al. de Schenberg à M. le docteur Schow. Journal Encyclopedique de Naples, No. 8.

soil in the neighbourhood are other hillocks of grayish argil, which contain gypsum. Terra Pilata has been so called from its sterility,—no vegetable grows on it.

The lands in Sicily are very fruitful, the olive is stronger, and grows to a greater size than in the rest of Italy; the pistachio tree abounds, and the cotton plant is cultivated with much care; but it is long since the forests have been exhausted, indeed all kinds of timber are at present very rare. Beans are now cultivated as a substitute for fallow. The Sicilian honey is of an excellent quality, and the bee is perhaps the most valuable animal in the country. The other animals do not differ from those of Calabria; among the birds, the solitary thrush is the one most attached to the soil, and the most admired for its harmonious notes.[l] | Vegetation.

It may be worth while to examine a question, concerning which distinguished men have entertained different opinions, —was Sicily ever a part of the continent? Those who deny the possibility of such a separation have perhaps paid too little attention to the traditions of the ancients. Pliny[m] and Pomponius Mela[n] considered it a fact that could not be doubted, and the poets have described the catastrophe. Virgil[o] and Silius Italicus[p] mention the proofs of it. The geologist does not attach any weight to a popular tradition, if it be at variance with the principles and truths that form the basis of his science; but if it can be easily reconciled with these principles and truths, it may be considered an additional argument of some importance. It is true that the authority of history is entitled to more credit than a mere tradition, lost in the night of time; but it does not require much reflection to be convinced that at no very remote period history is confounded with fable. The imagination may easily transport itself to the age when men did not possess the art of communicating their ideas by writing, or when history rested on tradition. | Separation of Sicily from the Continent.

Cluver[q] argues against the possibility of such a separation because the course of the rivers along the last declivities in Italy, on the side of Messina, indicate a general inclination of the land towards the sea. But if it be assumed that the Apenine chain, undermined by subterranean fires, was broken at the place where two heights were separated by a valley, and if, at the time of such a rupture, the waters of the sea rushed violently into the strait of Messina, they must have had some effect in rendering less precipitous, the Italian frontiers on one side, and the capes of Messina and Rasocolmo on the other. This much may be urged in answer to the objections deduced from the actual configuration of the country. But those who maintain the opposite opinion, seem to have overlooked what has been ascertained by geological observations, or that the mountains in Sicily, and the Apenines are formed by the same rocks. If it appears a chimerical notion that part of the chain, at least about a league in breadth, has been broken by a violent earthquake, because there is no reason to suppose that the southern Apenines were ever undermined, or, if it may be so said, ever placed above immense cavities; then what has taken place in Calabria ought to be recollected,—a mountain as great as Ætna was formed by subterranean fires, when the volcanic heights, now called the Lipari islands, were raised from the depths of the waters.

At a league and a half from the Pharus, situated near cape Rasocolmo, stands a rock famous in antiquity, as being most dangerous to ships. Rising like a peak, the base of Scylla is pierced by many caverns; the billows enter them, mingle with each other, and make in breaking a tremendous noise, which explains why Homer and Virgil have painted Scylla roaring in her cave, and guarded by wolves and fierce dogs. | Scylla and Charybdis.

[l] Turdus syaneus. [m] Book iii. chap. 8. [n] Book ii. chap. 7. [o] Æneid, Book iii. verse 414. [p] Book xiv. verse 10, &c. [q] Sicil. Antiq. lib. i.

Charybdis. Charybdis, now Calofaro, may be about seven hundred and fifty feet distant from the coast of Messina. It no longer resembles the description given of it by Homer; it is not a whirlpool, but a small space, hardly a hundred feet in circumference, subject to that sort of notion which is remarked at sea in all narrow passages.

Malta. Malta, Gozzo and Comino, are situated between Sicily and Africa, they form a superficies of twenty-two square leagues. The first, or Malta, is a calcareous rock about five leagues in length, and three in breadth, covered with a light layer of vegetable mould, which is rendered fruitful by the heat of the climate. More than eighty springs water Malta; but if a proprietor wishes to make a new garden, the soil must be transported from Sicily, a fact that could hardly be inferred from the number and excellent flavour of the Maltese oranges, from its beautiful roses, and the exhalations of a thousand flowers.

Comino. The small island of Comino, a rock about five hundred paces in circumference, has been so called from the great quantity of cumin which the inhabitants cultivate.

Gozzo. Gozzo, an island on which different heights are situated, may be about four leagues in length and two in breadth; it is fruitful in cotton, grain and vegetables.

Pentellaria. Nearer Africa than Sicily, the volcanic island of Pentellaria presents on every side steep declivities and caverns. A lake near the centre, about eight hundred paces in circumference, and of an immense depth, fills the cavity of an ancient crater; its waters are tepid, no fish are contained in them. Boiling springs issue from the base of the arid and burnt heights. The part of the island best adapted for cultivation produces raisins, figs and olives. Lampedusa, nearer Africa than Malta, is little more than two square leagues in extent.

Egades. The Egades or three islands, Favignana, Maretimo and Levanzo, near the western coast of Sicily, are little worthy of notice. All the islands on the north are ancient craters. Ustica, at eleven leagues from cape Gallo, is commanded by three small volcanic summits, which had been extinguished long before the Phœnician conquest. The soil is a dark loam, it yields rich harvests, the inhabitants cultivate cotton, olives and grapes.

Lipari islands. The Lipari or islands of Eolus, are situated to the east of Ustica; they are sixteen in number. Basilluzzo and the three Pinarelli may be considered submarine rocks composed of granite and porous lava covered with sulphate of alumen;[r] yet three inhabited houses are situated in Basilluzzo. It has been affirmed that hydrogen gas rises round these islands above the surface of the water. The soil of Alicudi or Alicuda is covered with globular lava; but Spallanzani describes a mass of porphyry that did not appear to have been in any way modified by the action of fire.[s] Felicuri or Felicudi may be remarked on account of its alternate layers of lava and tufa; in the same island is situated a large cavity, called the Grotto of the Sea Cow, not less than two hundred feet in length, two hundred in breadth, and sixty-five in height. Spallanzani observed there a mass of granite, similar to the rocks near Melazo in Sicily. The block which seems to have been transported by the waters, might tend to strengthen the opinion that a marine eruption has contributed with the action of subterranean fire to separate Sicily from Italy. Salina, which Spallanzani considered the ancient Dydima, is more probably the island of Thermisia. It may be about four leagues in circumference; a crater is situated near the centre, and the soil is fruitful in grapes that yield an excellent wine. It has been called Salina from the abundance of salt contained in a small lake separated from the sea by a lava dike that the waves have

[r] Spallanzani's Travels in Sicily, vol. ii. [s] Voyage en Sicile. Tome Troisieme.

formed. The waters of the lake are diverted into ditches made for the purpose; the heat of the sun dries them by evaporation, and leaves behind thick layers of salt.

Lipari, the largest of these islands, is nearly six leagues in circumference; it is covered with feldspathic land, volcanic glass or obsidian, and pumice stone, with which the inhabitants supply the whole of Europe. The mountain of Campo-Bianco consists of conglomerates containing plants, and forming strata that alternate with pumice stone.[1] Two craters are situated in Vulcano, an island less than six leagues in extent, the one appears to be exhausted, the other, which is of very large dimensions, emits clouds of smoke. It is supposed to be four thousand six hundred and sixty feet in depth, and two thousand five hundred and sixty-six in diameter. The last eruption took place in the year 1775. The extinguished crater is not inaccessible, the stranger may descend to a grotto adorned with stalactites of sulphur. The walls of another grotto are covered with sulphur, sulphate of alumen, and muriate of ammonia. Carbonic acid is disengaged from the hot waters of a small lake in the same island. The volcanic products of Panaria are nowise remarkable; like Lipari, it produces corn, olives, figs and excellent grapes. Stromboli, the most northern of these islands, is a steep volcano, in which a crater open on one side, is always burning. Two eruptions take place in calm weather, every quarter of an hour.

Lipari. Vulcano. Stromboli.

The entrance into the Gulf of Naples is defended by three islands, Capri or Caprea on the right, Ischia and Procida on the left. No traces of volcanoes are to be found on the first, which is about a league broad and a league and a half long. A calcareous peak divides it into two parts, and the inhabitants that go from the one to the other must ascend a stair of five hundred steps. It has been inferred from observations made in different parts of the earth, that the waters of the sea are lower than in past ages; Capri, however, offers a proof to the contrary. The floors of the palace built by Tiberius are at present covered with the waves. It is said that in certain seasons of the year, quails flock in such numbers to the most fruitful parts of the island, that the quantity killed in a day has been sold for more than a hundred ducats. The tithe that the bishop receives in quails, constitutes his principal revenue.

Islands on the Gulf of Naples. Capri.

Ischia is eight leagues in circumference, its soil is wholly volcanic, the last marine deposites are at present covered with lava. Strabo informs us, that its fruitful harvests and gold mines were the sources of much wealth to the inhabitants; but it is not improbable that the Greek geographer has been mistaken, for no traces of gold can now be found in its lava; its ancient volcanoes, Monte di Vico and Epopeo are not much lower than Vesuvius. The eruption which happened in 1302, lasted two months, and compelled the inhabitants to abandon the island; at present, however, it is very populous. It produces good wines, and many strangers repair to it on account of its mineral water.

Ischia.

Procida, placed between the continent and the last island, is not more than three leagues in circumference, but it contains a great many inhabitants, more perhaps than any other place of the same size; their number exceeds fourteen thousand. Its volcanic soil, formed by successive deposites of lava, yields plenty of oranges, figs and grapes.

Procida.

The Pontian islands, San Stefano, Vandotena, Zannone, Ponza and Palmarola, extend to the west of Ischia; several others of a smaller size, rise between them. Ponza or the largest may be about six or seven miles long, and three or three and a half broad. Like those that surround it, it is formed by brachytic rocks, the remains of burning streams that flowed in the midst of volcanic deposites. The base of La Guardia,

Pontian islands.

[1] Dolomieu, Voyage aux Iles Lipari.

or the highest point in the island, consists of semi-vitreous brachytes, while strata of common brachytes, about three feet thick, rise above it. The rocks, on the island of Zannone rest on limestone belonging to the intermediate formation. Several other islands are situated towards the north, between Corsica and Tuscany; of these the most southern are Gianuti, formerly Artemesia, Monte Cristo, the ancient Oglosa, inhabited by fishermen, and Giglio which the Romans called Ægilium. In the last are worked granite and valuable marble quarries; its hills are covered with trees, and the land is fruitful in wine. Pianosa, the ancient Planasia, a well wooded but thinly peopled island, lies at no great distance from Elba. Capria, a small calcareous island to the north of it, contains a greater population. Gorgona, opposite to Leghorn, a still smaller island, is covered with wood, and serves as a station for the sardel fishermen.

Island of Elba. | The island of Elba, so famous for its iron mines, which were worked at a very remote period, was called Æthalia by the Greeks, and Ilva by the Romans. It may be from twenty-five to thirty leagues in circumference, and about nineteen in superficies. Granite, micaceous schistus, and calcareous marble, are the principal rocks in its mountains, which extend from east to west. The Capanna is the highest summit in the island. Although some unwholesome marshes might be mentioned, the climate may be said to be salubrious. No river waters the island, Rio is its only stream, but it possesses abundant and never failing springs. Several mineral sources are situated in Elba; the inhabitants make excellent wine; the pastures, although of small extent, are very fruitful.

Sardinia. | The island of Sardinia, about sixty-one leagues in length, from north to south, and about thirty-three at its greatest breadth, forms a superficies of eleven hundred and ninety-four square leagues. A mountainous chain crosses the island, from south to north; two branches extend from its western side, the one towards the north-east, and the other towards the south-west. The island, formed principally of granite, in which are contained strata and veins of quartz, syenite, and grunstein or diorites, is covered in many places, particularly at the two extremities, with micaceous schistus. Mount Genargentu, one of the loftiest in Sardinia, consists chiefly of these substances; it is not less than six thousand and eighty-six feet in height. The same rocks appear at the north-eastern extremity, in the mountains Della Nurra. The southern and northern branches, composed of intermediate lands, and calcareous rocks, are generally covered with trachytes, that support ternary lands, from which basalts rise; the same substances may be remarked in the mountains Del Marghine near the centre of the island. These volcanic masses seem to have been partly overturned and destroyed by aqueous currents, flowing in the direction of north to south. Fresh water must have had some share in affecting these catastrophes; for, in the country, Cagliari, the remains of carnivorous and ruminating animals, as well as fresh water shells, are found in great numbers. No traces are left of the craters, from which the igneous products were discharged. A small modern volcano, near Giave, is characterized by pozzolana and scoriæ. The existence of gold in the Sardinian mountains may be considered very uncertain; there are several iron and lead mines. Silver, copper, and mercury, are found only in small quantities.[u]

Rivers. | The principal rivers flow from the western side of the great chain; the Ozieri, on the north, the Oristano, in the centre, and the Mannu, on the south. The Flumendoza rises from the opposite side of the mountains. The Oristano, or the largest, may be about twenty-two leagues in length, none of the others are more than fifteen. All the

[u] Description de l'île de Sandaigne, by M. de la Marmora, Memoires du Museum d'histoire naturelles.

numerous marshes in Sardinia, are more or less brackish, a quality derived from the neighbourhood of the sea, or the nature of the soil that they water.

The climate is temperate, but often exposed to the fatal effects of the south-east wind, the Levanto, or the Neapolitan sirocco. Strabo,[x] Tacitus,[y] Cicero,[z] and Cornelius Nepos,[a] mention the insalubrity of Sardinia. The same effects are still produced by the same causes; the miasms that rise from the marshes, particularly after rainy weather, occasion dangerous intermittent fevers. | Climate.

A fifth part of the soil is covered with forests of oak; the most common species are the ordinary oak, (*quercus robur*) the holm, (*quercus ilex*) and the cork (*quercus suber.*) The island has been divided into three vegetable zones; that of the mountains may be compared with Corsica; the plains and northern coasts resemble those in Provence; lastly, the plains and coasts in the south are arid and unfruitful. The low state of agriculture may be attributed rather to the character of the inhabitants than to the nature of the soil. | Vegetation.

The largest of the wild animals are, the stag, the fallow deer, the goat, and the wild boar; but they are all smaller than others of the same sort in the continent. The musimon differs from the same animal in Corsica, both in size, and in the form of the horns, which resemble those of the ram. The other quadrupeds are, the fox, the rabbit, the hare and the weazel. The domestic animals may be distinguished by particular characters; the horses are small, but strong; they are useful for twenty or thirty years; the ass is small and covered with long hair; the oxen, like those in Hungary, have very long horns, they are light, nimble, and impetuous. The Sardinian goats are not inferior in size to those in Italy; all the other animals are diminutive and degenerate. | Wild animals.

The eagle soars above the mountains; the vulture devours the putrid carcasses on the plains; and the linnet, the blackbird, and the thrush, enliven the fields. The flamingo arrives from Africa about the middle of August; two months later it is joined by flocks of swans, geese, and wild ducks, that migrate from northern regions, and are followed by herons, teal and cormorants. | Birds.

The slow growth of vegetation, and the sudden arefaction of most of the plants, render insects less abundant in Sardinia, than in other southern countries. The tarantula is not unknown, grasshoppers are more common, and the fleas are very troublesome. The bees yield excellent honey; it has a bitter taste, which is not disagreeable; the inhabitants attribute it to the flowers of the arbute tree. | Insects.

The only reptiles found in the island, are, a small snake, and different species of lizards. Many fish are taken in the rivers and the sea. The most remarkable amphibious animals are two species of phoci. | Reptiles.

Sardinia is surrounded by several small islands. The largest are, San Antioco and San Pietro, on the south-west, Asinara, on the north-west; Madalena, Caprara, and Tavolara, on the north. San Antioco, the Enosis of the Romans, is about nine leagues in circumference. It yields rich harvests, and its inhabitants export a great quantity of salt. San Pietro, divided into two parts by a hill, is the ancient Hieracum; it may be about eight or nine leagues in circumference. The inhabitants fish for coral, work their salt mines, and cultivate a fruitful soil. Asinara, the ancient *Insula Herculis*, about four leagues and a half in length, and two in breadth, is mountainous and covered with pastures; a few fishermen and shepherds inhabit it. | Neighbouring islands.

Tavolara, a calcareous rock, now the haunt of wild goats, was inhabited

[x] Book Fifth. [y] Annals, Book Seventh. [z] Book Second. Letter Third of Fabius Gallus to Quintus. [a] De Viris Illustr.

by the ancients, who fished on the coasts for the molluscæ that yields the purple dic.

BOOK CXXXII.

EUROPE.

Description of Italy.—Second Section.—Lombard-Venetian kingdom.

Ancient inhabitants.

THE most ancient people that inhabited the country, from the sides of the Alps, to the banks of the Po, from the course of the Tessino, to the Lizonzo, were the *Orobii*, on the north, the *Insubres* and the *Cenomani*, above the lakes of Como and Ieso; the *Loevi*, on the west, near the confluence of the Tessino and the Po, and the *Euganei*, on the east. The Orobii were probably aborigines of the Alps; their name signifies literally those that live on mountains; but Pliny,[a] after Cornelius Alexander, makes them migrate from Greece; yet Bergomum, the name of their chief, indicates a Germanic, or rather *Celto-Germanic* origin. The *Insubres* appear to have migrated from the north, they were a branch of the Ombri, whose name, in their language, signifies *Valiant*. Their capital, or the ancient *Mediolanum* forms the present Milan. The Cenomani were a colony of Celtic people that inhabited the territory of Mans; they settled on the southern sides of the Alps, six centuries before the vulgar era. The Loevi were also considered Gauls, and the Euganei possessed for a long time the territory that forms the government of Venice, but they were at last invaded by the Veneti, who are supposed to have been a colony of the Veneti, in the country round Vannes, in Armoricum, a seafaring and commercial people.

The descendants of these different nations possessed that part of Italy, until the fall of the Roman empire, in the west, about the end of the fifth century, when the Heruli, under the conduct of Odoacer, quitted the banks of the Danube, settled on the banks of the Po, and made Ravenna the capital of their country. Six years after their conquest, they were subdued by the Ostrogoths, whose power was shaken by the glorious efforts of Belisarius, and overthrown by the eunuch Narses in the year 553.

Longobardi.

Italy, restored to the emperors of the east, was not long secure against foreign invasions. The Longobardi quitted the forests of Germany, and founded in 567, a powerful kingdom, in the great valley of the Po, which in time was styled Lombardy.[b] But the bishops of Rome, anticipating their power, observed, not without fear and jealousy, the aggrandizement of barbarians, that threatened to destroy or possess the ancient capital of the world.

Fall of their kingdom.

Stephen the Second implored the assistance of France; Pepin took from the Longobardi the exarchate of Ravena, and made the pope sovereign over it.. The kingdom was afterwards destroyed by Charlemagne, who confined Didier, their last king, in a convent. Although Lombardy continued without a sovereign, its laws were retained, and the country was divided into several principalities, subject to the western empire. But the spirit of independence was diffused over that portion of Italy; the emperors of Germany granted to some towns the right of choosing their magistrates. A custom, that the citizens had preserved,—ac-

[a] Plinus, Liber III. cap. 7. [b] Chronological tables by John Blair.

cordant with the genius of Christianity,—the right of electing their bishops, led men to conclude that all power emanated from the people.

Lombard republics.

These, and other republican forms, determined the inhabitants of large towns to demand charters and more important privileges. All the cities in Lombardy, during the twelfth century, not only elected their magistrates, but deliberated on their local interests, on the advantages of making peace and war.[c] Frederick Barbarossa was the first emperor, who, violating the charters and treaties of his predecessors, attempted to establish absolute power in Italy. Milan was the most important town in Lombardy; besieged by that prince, its inhabitants reduced to a small number by famine, it consented at last to capitulate, but on conditions which the conqueror disdained. A few days afterwards, Milan was changed into a heap of ruins. If the emperor protected the rivals of that large city, he destroyed their freedom; and the magistrates elected by the citizens, were succeeded by the *podestas*, whom Frederick appointed. The peace which succeeded the noise and confusion of war, was only the stillness of fear. Liberty, although subdued, was not destroyed, the people unaccustomed to oppression, bore it reluctantly; a secret league conspired to restore their privileges.

The towns formed for that purpose a confederation, while Frederick, emboldened by success, marched against Rome, with a view to humble the Pope, and to unite his possessions to the empire. But on that occasion at least, the thunders of the Vatican were favourable to the independence of nations. The Romans, animated with the just resentment of their bishop, resisted with courage; heaven seemed to favour their efforts, the plague cut off great numbers of the imperial army. The emperor made a new attempt against Lombardy, but denounced and excommunicated, he was the object of hatred and contempt. The confederate towns gave him battle, his troops were routed and cut to pieces; and Frederick himself saved his life by means of a disguise; at last, abandoned by fortune, he acknowledged the independence of the Lombard republics.

Guelfs and Ghibelines.

Divisions in opinion are not the least evils in political revolutions; by such causes the inhabitants of the same nation, nay the citizens in the same town, have been changed into irreconcilable enemies. While Barbarossa continued fortunate and victorious, he was surrounded by ambitious flatterers, ever ready to pay their court to the powerful. The same persons adhered to his successor, after the death of Frederick, and, as in the former struggle, the court of Rome had principally contributed to the success of the people against the empire, Lombardy was then divided into two dominant factions. The partisans of the Pope took the name of *Guelfs*,[d] while those of the emperor were called *Ghibelins*. In their contests, both parties were at different times victorious, but the Guelfs more frequently than the Ghibelins.

The freedom and independence gained by the Lombard towns, tended to promote civilization, were favourable to the culture of the arts, to the diffusion of commerce and riches. Some notion may be formed of their resources, from the account given of Milan by a contemporary writer in the thirteenth century.[e] It contained among its two hundred thousand inhabitants, six hundred lawyers, two hundred physicians, and fifty copyists of manuscripts. A body of eight thousand knights, or gentlemen, who could put two hundred and forty thousand men under arms, were main-

[c] Muratori, Annals of Italy. [d] The Guelfs derived their name from an illustrious Bavarian family, allied by marriage with the house of Este. The Ghibelins were so called from a village in Franconia, the birth place of Conrad the Salic, from whom the family of Suabia is descended. See Hallam's Middle ages; Gibbon's Antiquities of the house of Brunswick.

[e] Galvaneus Flamma.

tained within its territory, which included Lodi, Pavia, Bergamo and Como, a hundred and fifty villages, and as many castles.

Decline of the Lombard republics.

But civil dissentions, the sources of ambition and corruption, proved fatal to the patriotism of the inhabitants, and to the independence of these states. The towns, so determined in defending their privileges against the emperors, chose magistrates whose power became hereditary, and soon degenerated into tyranny. Central Lombardy was the inheritance of the Visconti, Verona of La Scala, the family of Carrara acquired Padua, and that of Gonzaga, Mantua. Milan and its territory were erected into a dutchy, and conferred on a Visconti, by the emperor Venceslas in the year 1395. The same principality passed in right of his mother, to a descendant of the celebrated James Sforza, who from the condition of a labourer, rose by his talent and courage to the dignity of Constable. When that family became extinct, Charles the Fifth made himself master of the Milanese, which continued in the possession of Spain until the year 1700. After the death of the last duke, the house of Austria succeeded to his territory, and ceded some portion of it to Savoy.

Republic of Venice.

The descendants of the Veneti, in order to escape from the barbarous hordes of Alaric, who invaded Italy in the beginning of the fifth century, sought shelter in the small islands at the mouth of the Brenta. They founded two small towns, Rivoalto and Malamocco. So early as the year 697, the magistrates of these populous islands, anxious to secure their independence, and to form a distinct people, obtained from the emperor Leontius, the privilege of electing a chief, on whom they conferred the title of *Doge* or Duke. Pepin, king of Italy, granted to their rising state the lands and coast on both sides of the Adige. Rivoalto was united to the neighbouring islands, and became a new town to which the inhabitants gave the name of *Venetiæ*. In the ninth century, the republic became important from its maritime force; in the twelfth it equipped fleets for the crusades. It was principally owing to the efforts of the Venetians that Constantinople was taken in 1202, a part of the town and territory was in consequence added to their dominions, the doges were styled dukes of Dalmatia, the dukes of five-eighths of the Roman empire, a singular but not accurate title.[f] Candia, the Ionian islands, the most of those in the Archipelago, and other important stations, settlements at Acre and Alexandria, served to extend the power and the commerce of Venice.

Ancient government.

The Venetian government consisted first of counsellors nominated by the people, who shared with the doge the legislative authority. The last magistrate possessed great prerogatives, but they were gradually restricted lest the dignity should become hereditary.

A numerous and representative council was instituted; it was chosen by twelve electors whom the people named; but in time the members that formed it, arrogated the right of nominating the twelve electors, and of confirming or rejecting their successors before they resigned their functions. The frequent election of the same members resulted as a necessary consequence from this confusion of powers; and a dignity which was intended to be the reward of virtuous citizens, became the exclusive portion of certain families. When these innovations in the primitive form of government were established, a senate was instituted, and the senators had the right of making peace or war; but they, as well as the counsellors of the doge, were elected every year by the great council. The discontent and revolts in the fourteenth century, occasioned by a system that annihilated the fundamental principles of a republican government, led to the

[f] Hallam's Middle ages, vol. i. p. 472.

formation of the celebrated *Council of Ten*, and in their infernal police were organized the insidious spy, the hired informer and the base assassin.

Such was the state of the dutchy of Milan, and the Venetian republic; but in 1796, after the victory of Marengo, their territories, united with those of Modena and a portion of the states of the church, formed the Cisalpine republic, afterwards denominated the Italian republic until the year 1805, when it was changed into the kingdom of Italy. The ancient name of Lombardy had been long forgotton, when, by the negotiations at Vienna, Austria having obtained Milan, Mantua, Venice and the Valteline, united their territories, and formed the Lombard-Venetian kingdom. | Italian republic.

It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the Tyrol, on the west and the south by the Sardinian possessions, the dutchies of Parma, Modena, and the states of the church; on the east by the Adriatic Gulf and the kingdom of Illyria. It may be equal in superficial extent to two thousand three hundred and sixty-eight square leagues.[6] The lake Maggiore, the Tessino and the greater part of the Po are its natural limits. | Limits of the Lombard Venetian kingdom.

Winter lasts generally about two months; the fields are clothed with verdure in February, and the heat of summer is felt in May. The grain and the ordinary kinds of fruit are ripe in June or July, and the vintage takes place in October. The air is salubrious in most parts of the kingdom, but the rice fields occasion, in some places, putrid miasms; the environs of Mantua and Rovigo, are exposed to unwholesome exhalations, and the marshes are dangerous to strangers.

The valley of the Po, which, in the time of Polybius, was a marshy country, shaded by forests, the haunt of wild boars, does not furnish, at present, a sufficient quantity of timber for its inhabitants. The treasures of Ceres and Pomona have succeeded the peaceful retreats of the hamadryads. Extensive meadows, watered by the streams that descend from the Alps, yield six crops of hay in the same year. The horned cattle are not inferior to any in Europe; the peasants devote much attention to them; cheese, and the produce of the dairy, are their principal wealth. | Valley of the Po.

Some customs of past times still exist in the Milanese; heavy wagons, with low and massive wheels, drawn by several pairs of oxen, the tips of their long horns, covered with iron balls, their heads adorned with ribands and garlands; the country women with their hair folded in tresses, and bound together by a silver bodkin; the shepherds carrying, instead of a hook, a staff, in the form of a crosier, a mantle hanging from their left shoulder; the arched heads of the sheep, their pendant ears, and light forms, similar to many ancient basso-relievos, announce Italy and its classic associations. These and other characters which the stranger observes, on his arrival, form a striking contrast with the wretchedness of the peasantry, but he becomes habituated to other contrasts, still more painful, for Italy is the country of luxury and poverty. | Ancient recollections.

The bee and the silk-worm are reared with great success in Lombardy; an enormous quantity of wax is consumed in the churches; and the manufacturing of silk, is among the few branches of industry, in which the people are not inferior to their neighbours. Cotton spinning, cloth and linen manufactories, are not without activity; and it has been estimated that the mean product of the exports amounts to 3,542,000*l*. Commercial communications are facilitated by excellent roads, rivers, and canals. | Industry.

The Lombard-Venetian kingdom has been declared an integral part of the Austrian empire. As the country was long | Constitution.

[6] M. Thielen considers it equal to 85,194 square miles.

governed by French laws, absolute power has been mitigated by the constitution of 1815. The forms of national representation have been established, but the members that compose it, have only the right of deliberating on certain questions, which the government proposes. The emperor is represented by a viceroy, and the kingdom is divided into two governments, those of Milan and Venice. The first is subdivided into nine districts or *delegations*, and the second into eight.

Milan. | Milan, the capital of the kingdom, and the residence of the viceroy, is situated in a vast plain, on the banks of the Olona. If its old ramparts and new walks be included, it may be equal in circumference to ten thousand yards, but the part which is inhabited does not amount to more than six thousand. Eleven gates lead to different parts of the country, and the length of Milan, or the space between the western and Tessino gates may be about three thousand yards. The number of houses is not less than four thousand eight hundred, and the population amounts to a hundred and forty thousand inhabitants. If the streets were large and straight, it might merit the title of *Milan the Magnificent*. It has been justly remarked that mean looking houses are as rare as palaces in other towns. The most spacious streets are called *corsi*, both because they serve the purpose of public walks, and because they are the places where race horses run. The squares or courts are almost all irregular and without ornaments; that of the cathedral is long and narrow.

Cathedral. | The building itself, one of the most remarkable in Europe, was begun in the year 1386, by duke John Galaes Visconti; but many ages may elapse before it be finished. If little has been done with the two millions of franks which Napoleon granted for the purpose of completing the *Duomo* or cathedral, it is not likely that much can be effected in a short period with the hundred and forty-four thousand franks paid annually by Austria. The building is about four hundred and fifty-four feet in length, two hundred and seventy in breadth, and the arched roof is two hundred and thirty-two in height. The highest turret is not less than three hundred and thirty-five feet above the ground. Few Gothic buildings are so much loaded with ornaments; white marble statues appear in every niche, in every angle, on every turret, and round every spire; their total number has been estimated at more than four thousand, but many of them are so concealed as to be only seen by the birds which perch on them. Fifty-two marble pillars, each eighty-four feet in height, and twenty-four in circumference, support the vast edifice. Below the cathedral, and in a subterranean chapel, are deposited, in a silver shrine, the remains of St. Charles Borromeo.

Other buildings. | The church of St. Ambrose contains the tombs of several saints, and also Bernard, king of Italy, and his wife, Bertha. It was in the same church that the emperors of Germany were crowned. The ancient convent of the Dominicans was celebrated for the famous painting of Leonardo da Vinci, representing the Last Supper, not a fresco, but an oil painting on the wall of the refectory, and occupying a whole side of that low hall, in other words, about thirty feet in length, by fifteen in height. But it has been so much disfigured by time, smoke, and damp, that it is to be feared no trace of it will be discernible in a short period. It could hardly be believed, that the municipal authorities at Milan, had changed the refectory into a watch-house, nay even into a prison, where French soldiers guarded their prisoners of war. If the authorities were so regardless of a painting which had been the greatest ornament in their city, for more than three hundred years, it is not wonderful that French soldiers used it as a target. "As to those by whom the mischief was done," says M. Simond, "an old woman, who had lived near the refectory for the last seventeen years, informed me, that she had heard of soldiers firing at the picture, before she resided there, that a soldier of the sixth

French hussars told her, he himself with others had done so, not knowing what it was, when guarding prisoners confined in the hall, and that these prisoners, men of all nations, threw stones and brickbats against it by way of amusement. When Buonaparte came to Milan, he went to see the picture, and finding the hall still used as a place of confinement, *he shrugged his shoulders and stamped with his foot*, said the woman, and ordering the prisoners away, a door was walled up, and a ballustrade or wooden partition was drawn across the room before it."[h] The church of St. Alexander is remarkable for its fine portal, that of St. Vittore is so much overloaded with gilt ornaments, that it resembles rather a gaudy play-house, than a temple intended for devotion.

Etymology of Mediolanum.

Several authors have exhausted their etymological ingenuity, in discovering the origin of Mediolanum, the ancient name of the town.[i] It was not so called from two Tuscan warriors, nor from its position between two rivers, nor from a pig, half covered with wool, (*medio lana*,) which was seen by Bellovesus, at the place where he founded the city, for it is certain that other towns, inhabited by the Gauls, bore the same name. Several antiquities prove that Milan was in its splendour while the Roman empire flourished. Sixteen marble columns may still be seen near the church of San Lorenzo, they are supposed to be the remains of the baths built by Maximian-Hercules, the associate of Diocletian in the empire. The principal public buildings in Milan, are, the archiepiscopal palace, adorned with fine paintings, the royal palace, that of the regency, the palace Marini, now possessed by the minister of finance, the palace or court of justice, and the mint, a building in point of architecture, unworthy of Milan, but remarkable for its fine collection of medals and Italian coins. The barracks which were built at Milan, by Eugene Beauharnois, when viceroy of Italy, are admitted to be the finest in Europe. Twelve or fourteen palaces, of elegant architecture, and richly decorated, belong to different individuals, and evince the opulence of some Milanese families.

Theatres.

The two, most frequented, of the four or five theatres in Milan, are the opera, and the theatre of Girolamo. The first, or the Scala, so called, because it occupies the site of an ancient church of the same name, is a very large building. The six rows of boxes give it an imposing appearance; but small rooms are attached to them; the spectators seldom listen to the music; conversation and gambling are considered more attractive; indeed, it is often impossible to hear the performance, from the noise that prevails in every part of the house. A reading room is open in the Scala, from mid-day to the evening, and in the evening numbers repair to different gaming tables. Thus, the purpose of the Scala has been perverted, and it might be better that it were closed, than the young should come in contact with gamesters, and the profligate persons who frequent it.

Puppets.

The Girolamo is considered the best theatre of puppets or marionets in Italy. The precision and vivacity in the motions of the actors produce a complete illusion. The origin of these small wooden figures can only be discovered in vague traditions of a very ancient period. An intrepid French traveller brought from Egypt small wooden figures, moveable by springs, and not inferior to those of Nuremberg.[k] It appears that the Egyptians inhumated these playthings with their children; a custom which existed at Rome after the introduction of Christianity. In ancient times, a young woman before her marriage, sacrificed to Venus, the doll that had been given to her in childhood.[l] Authors make mention

[h] Simond's Travels in Italy, p. 12. [i] Alciat, Hist. Mediolani.—Isidore, Origines.—Sidonius. Appollinaris, l. vii. c. 1, &c. [k] M. Cailliaud, who visited Merbe and the White River. [l] Perseus,—Satire ii.

of small moveable figures, that attracted crowds to the streets;[m] but, as M. Millin observes, the moderns were the first who substituted puppets for actors in their theatres. The person that contributed most to improve and perfect these exhibitions, was Philip Acciajuoli, a knight of Malta. Tragedies, operas, comedies, and ballets, are represented in the Girolamo. Crowds resort to them; the humble shop-keeper, the wealthy banker, and the haughty noble, express their delight by hearty plaudits. The *lazzi* of Girolamo are burlesque personages, in which are united whatever is most ludicrous in the *polichinelle* of Naples, the *arlequino* of Venice, and the *gianduja* of Turin.

Public works. | The immense esplanade that encompasses the remains of the ancient castle in Milan, was little better than an unwholesome marsh which the French transformed into an agreeable walk, shaded by trees that extend to a distance of more than ten thousand feet; it was then known by the name of *Foro Buonaparte*. A triumphal arch adorned with basso-relievos in white marble, was erected during the French government at the end of the road that leads across the Simplon. At no great distance from the triumphal arch, stands the circus, also a monument of the reign of Napoleon, and, from its size, not unlike the monuments of the Romans. The seats, which are raised above each other, might contain thirty thousand spectators, and the arena is set apart for races and public games. The Corso near the eastern gate, is lined with fine houses, and the rows of trees that extend between the same gate and the Roman gate, are often crowded by fashionable equipages; it is there that the Milanese display their address in conducting their light phaetons.

Useful institutions. | Our limits prevent us from describing the Ambrosian library, founded by the cardinal Borromeo, and that of Brera in the royal palace of sciences and arts, an elegant building, to which are attached a fine observatory and a botanical garden containing many exotic plants. The same reason prevents us from mentioning the numerous hospitals and charitable institutions; but it may be remarked that the application of Jenner's happy discovery, to whom the ancients would have erected temples, is more diffused in the Lombard-Venetian kingdom than in the rest of Italy. If no ravages are now made by the small-pox in Milan it is owing to the vigilance of government, and to the enlightened zeal of the clergy. Sworn vaccinators are always ready to impede its effects; the managers of hospitals and other charities grant no assistance to children unless their parents be furnished with certificates of vaccination. Every three months, the country curates read from the pulpit, the names of the individuals, if there be any, who have died of the small pox. They remind their parishioners of the duties they owe to their country, which commands them not to neglect the means of cure.[n] If an individual be seized with variola, and if his physician, or one of his relations does not declare it, they are liable to a penalty of a hundred franks. The authorities fix an inscription printed in large characters on his house, and contagion is thus prevented. The members of the family, who may have approached the invalid are not permitted to communicate with others, before he be cured; and if he dies, the body is interred without the usual ceremonies.

Great men. | Milan has always held a distinguished rank in literature and in the arts. Virgil studied, and Valerius Maximus was born in the town. It has produced in modern times Octavio Terrari, the antiquary, Cardan, the mathematician, and Becoaria, the celebrated jurist. The same town carries on a considerable trade, and possesses many manufactories.

[m] Horace Lib. i. sat. 2. Lib. ii. sat. 7. Aulus Gellius, Lib. xiv. cap. 1.
[n] Voyage en Italie par le Docteuren Valtin.

Monza, at some leagues from the north of Milan, is adorned with a fine palace and a cathedral, possessing greater treasures than any other in the kingdom. One may see there the famous iron crown, of which the date and origin are unknown. The same town, although its population amounts hardly to six thousand persons, existed in the time of the Romans, and was then called Moditia or Modoœtia. Its agreeable position on the banks of the Lambro, made Theodoric, king of the Goths, choose it for a residence. | Monza.

Pavia rises on the banks of the Tessino, in the southern frontier of the kingdom; it was formerly called Ticinum, from the name of the River. It was a place of some importance under the emperors, and according to Pliny it was more ancient than Milan.[a] Tacitus mentions it; indeed few towns are so pleasantly situated. The Longobards chose it for their capital, but antiquarians are unable to explain the origin of its name. It was laid waste by the Martial Lautrec, who, by a new species of barbarism, sought to avenge the defeat of Francis the First. Pavia is surrounded with massive walls, half ruined towers, bastions and ditches; the number of inhabitants exceeds twenty-two thousand. The streets are broad, and the great square is encompassed with porticos. The finely built cathedral indicates the period of the regeneration of art. A long piece of wood, not unlike the old mast of a boat, is preserved with great care in the cathedral, and shown to strangers, as the lance of Orlando. Of the other eighteen churches, St. Peter's is most worthy of notice for its Lombard architecture; the people suppose that the ashes of St. Augustin rest in its vaults. The town possesses a theatre and several fine buildings; its university dates from the time of Charlemagne. | Pavia.

Lodi possesses a fine square encompassed with arcades, eight suburbs, eighteen thousand inhabitants, an old citadel, now useless, lofty walls, twenty churches, a large hospital, a theatre, and several palaces belonging to different individuals, porcelain works, silk manufactories, and, lastly, a considerable trade in cheese, which is called Parmesan. It is situated on the banks of the Adda, and is celebrated on account of the victory gained by the French on the 10th of May, 1796. | Lodi.

Como may be about eight leagues to the north of Milan; it rises on the southern extremity of a lake, to which it gives its name. It could hardly be inferred, from its narrow and tortuous streets, that it was a royal town; it claims, however, a greater honour, it was the birth place of Pliny the younger. Although the architecture of the marble cathedral is partly Gothic and partly modern, it is the only building worthy of notice in the town. The lake of Como is the Larius of the ancients. The picturesque valley of the Adda, or the Valteline, extends beyond the romantic banks of the lake to the base of the Alps. That valley, once a part of Switzerland, afterwards of France, was united under the Austrian empire to the Lombard-Venetian kingdom. Sandrio, or the chief town, does not contain more than three thousand five hundred inhabitants. | Como.

Beyond the chain which bounds the valley on the south, and between two small rivers, the Brembo and the Serio, is situated Bergamo, a royal town, the *Bergamum* of the Romans. It was pillaged and destroyed by Attila, rebuilt by the Lombards, and made a free town by the successors of Charlemagne. While Venice was in its splendour, Bergamo was added to the territory of the republic. It carries on a considerable trade in iron and in silk; the inhabitants are industrious, and comparatively affluent. | Bergamo.

The ancient town of Cremona, situated in a pleasant valley, is encompassed with ditches, walls and bastions, commanded by the citadel of Sânta Croce, and watered by the Po; a canal, which ex- | Cremona.

[a] L. XVII. c. 4.

tends from that river, communicates with the Oglio. It was founded by the *Cenomani*, a Celtic people, who called it *Cremon*, from which its present name has been derived. Faithful to the cause of Brutus, its territory was divided among the soldiers of Augustus. It was sacked by the troops of Vespasian and afterwards pillaged by the Goths, in the year 630. It experienced the same treatment from the emperor Barbarossa. Marshal Villeroy was taken prisoner at Cremona by the Austrians in 1702; and in 1799 the latter gained some advantage over the French, under its walls. The town holds a great reputation in Italy and in most parts of Europe for its musical instruments, particularly its violins. It occupies a considerable extent of ground, not less than two leagues in circumference; its population amounts to twenty-three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets are straight, broad, and well paved; the palaces are large, but they are all Gothic buildings. The Duomo or cathedral, the most remarkable of its forty-five churches, is surmounted by a tower which rises to the height of three hundred and seventy-two feet, and is supposed to be higher than any other in Italy. As Cremona is long and narrow, it has been compared to a vessel, of which the tower is the mast.[p]

Brescia. Brescia, at ten leagues to the north of Cremona, is also surrounded with ramparts and ditches; its streets are broad and regular, and it contains thirty-two thousand inhabitants. The palace of justice may be worthy of notice for its mixed architecture, the Gothic and the modern; the interior is adorned with fresco paintings. The Episcopal palace, which has been lately finished, is remarkable for its elegant peristyle; and the cathedral for its bold arches, paintings, statues, and rich altars. The town possesses an extensive commerce, and its fire arms are considered the best in Italy.

Mantua. Mantua, says Millan, recalls many associations, it was the birth-place of Virgil, it is connected with the glory and liberality of the Gonzagas. Enclosed by an immense marsh, formed by the inundations of the Mincio, it has the appearance of an impregnable town; but the waters are unwholesome, and occasion dangerous diseases; neither do they form an inaccessible barrier, for Mantua has been more than once taken; many consider it, however, one of the strongest towns in Italy, and it is believed to have been built by the Etruscans three centuries before the foundation of Rome.[q] It contained fifty thousand inhabitants in the seventeenth century, but its present population amounts hardly to half the number. Most of the streets are broad, all of them are straight; the squares are large and regular; the fortifications are kept in good repair. The town boasts of having given birth to Virgil, and the inhabitants take care to remind strangers of that circumstance, for his bust is seen on one of the eight gates, and a monument in honour of the poet rises on the principal square, the Piazza di Virgilio. The cathedral was built after the designs of Julio Romano, but as a piece of architecture, it cannot be compared with the palace of Te, a very fine building, so called from its resemblance to the letter T. The ashes of Tasso, the modern Virgil, rest in the church of St. Egada. The Austrian government has been at considerable expense in rendering Mantua more salubrious, in draining part of its marshes, and in constructing new fortifications and demolishing the old, by which a passage has been opened for the stagnant water. Although silk, leather, and cloth are made in the town, its commerce is only carried on through the medium of the Jews.

All the towns that have been as yet described, depend on the government of Milan; before we give any account of those under the government of Venice, some remarks may be made on the insalubrity of certain districts in Upper Italy. We have already had occasion to allude to the poverty

[p] Voyage dans le Milanais, by Millin, tome ii. [q] Rudolphe de Jenny.

and wretchedness of the inhabitants of some Milanese villages at the base of the mountains, which form the northern limits. The villagers are exposed to a disease which has been termed *pellagra*, and which, according to physicians, was unknown a century ago. It is a cutaneous affection, and the external characters are brown or black spots, that appear on every part of the body except the face. Those that are afflicted with it, says Dr. Valentin,[r] are emaciated, weak and melancholy, oppressed by hypochondria, and tormented with pains that extend along the vertebral column. In some cases the same disease is accompanied with alarming symptoms of delirium. The pellagra is often fatal, and in many instances it has excited its victims to commit suicide; it breaks out in the spring, increases with the heat of summer, and terminates at the approach of winter. The cause of the disease has not yet been ascertained, but it may perhaps be attributed to a scanty and unwholesome diet; at all events it is very uncommon in the government of Venice, a country, in point of climate, much more unhealthy than the Milanese. The effects of the climate begin to be apparent near the banks of the Adige, and according to some statements, the neighbourhood of Peschiera, near the lake of Garda, is so dangerous to strangers, that French regiments used to decide by lot, which of them should form the garrison of the town.[s] The story, it may be admitted, does not appear very probable, as it is not customary for soldiers to choose the place of their garrison. Travellers affirm that the territory of Verona is equally unhealthy, it is certain that the ravages of poverty and disease are too apparent in the town of Rovigo.

Verona.

The old walls of Verona are commanded on the north by hills covered with vineyards and country houses. The Adige divides it into two equal parts; it may be about four leagues in circumference, and the population exceeds sixty thousand inhabitants. Different opinions are entertained concerning its origin, but it is known that it was an important place in the time of Strabo. The fine gates that adorn it are worthy of a great city, but the interior corresponds ill with the entrance; for although some streets are spacious and well paved, the greater number are small and narrow. Several good paintings of the Venetian school, a museum, and a valuable collection of antiquities are contained in the town-house. The venerable witnesses of its ancient splendour may be seen near these modern collections; the amphitheatre, the most remarkable of any, and still in a good state of preservation, rises at no great distance from them. It is difficult to observe its ancient monuments without recollecting that Verona was the birth-place of the elder Pliny and Cornelius Nepos. Those who admire the paintings in its churches, may soon discover that the modern Verona was the native town of Paul Veronese.

Padua.

The fruitfulness of the soil in the neighbourhood of Padua, Vicenza, Treviso and Belluno forms a remarkable contrast with the poverty of the inhabitants. Indolence and want of education are the principal causes, immorality and every sort of vice, the fatal effects; it is not safe to travel at night in Upper Italy; although the robbers in that part of the country are less formidable than at Terracina or Fondi, strangers are as liable to have their luggage and effects stolen. The remote villages are so many dens of thieves; those who travel from Verona to Venice, never think of passing the night at any other place than Vicenza or Padua.[t] The last town is of a triangular form, it occupies a space of more than three leagues in circumference, and contains a population of forty-seven thousand inhabitants. The antiquity of Padua is not doubtful; what Livy says concerning it,[u] who was born within its walls, and the beautiful verses of Virgil,[x] who attributes its foundation to Antenor, prove that it existed

[r] Voyage en Italie, par le Docteur Valentin.
[s] Simond's Travels in Italy.
[t] Simond's Travels in Italy.
[u] Lib. x. c. ii.
[x] Eniad, Lib. i. v. 242.

twelve centuries before the Christian era. It was called *Patavium* by the ancients, and if Strabo may be credited, who extolled its commerce and its wealth, it could raise, long before his time, an army of a hundred and twenty thousand men.[r] The Greek geographer may be supposed to have exaggerated, or more probably, some error may have crept into his text, but different Roman poets attest the prosperity and the wealth of Padua.[s] The squares are spacious and adorned with fine buildings, but the arcades are low and dismal, and most of the streets are narrow, dirty, and ill paved. At Padua, as in every other Italian town, there are many paintings in the churches; and the paintings, as well as the churches, are the works of great masters. The number of the latter is not less than ninety-five, and it is said that the church of St. Antony contains the ashes of its patron. The village of Arqua, at some leagues to the south-west of Padua, is not only remarkable for its picturesque site, it contains the tomb of Petrarch, and the house inhabited by the poet, in which part of his furniture has been preserved.

Vicenza. Vicenza, the ancient Vicentia, is peopled by thirty thousand inhabitants, and encompassed with a double wall. The streets are irregular, but in point of architecture and fine buildings it may be compared with any town in Upper Italy. Few antiquities are contained within its walls; some ruins of a theatre, which is supposed to have been built by Augustus, the remains of an imperial palace, and a statue of Iphigenia, preserved by the Dominicans, are all that have escaped the ravages of time, and the devastations of barbarians. Vicenza was the birth-place of the celebrated architect Palladio, who embellished his native city.

Treviso. The streets of Treviso are not more regular than those in Vicenza; the most of the squares are large, and decorated with arcades; the townhouse is a fine building, and the cathedral possesses several valuable ornaments. The population may be equal to fifteen thousand souls. Although Belluno is a royal town, it contains only eight thousand inhabitants. Udina, another royal town, and the metropolis of Friuli, is built on the canal of Roya. A large watchhouse, one of the principal edifices, is adorned with marble statues and columns. The *Giardino*, a fine public walk, shaded with trees that were planted by the French, is situated in front of the castle.

The *lagune* extend near the coasts of the Adriatic gulf, and their stagnant waters diffuse an unwholesome atmosphere over the scattered habitations that surround them. The sickly and pallid faces of the inhabitants, are remarked by the strangers that visit the country. The *lagune* are soon confounded with the sea, and Venice is seen rising from the ocean, the element of its former wealth and power. Venice, one of the oldest and most singular towns in Europe, stands on a hundred and fifty islands, in the midst of a vast marsh; they are united by more than three hundred bridges, and appear to form only a single island. It is equal to nearly three leagues in circumference; a large canal divides it into two equal parts, and other canals lined with houses, form the streets, in which the monotonous sound of oars may be heard, instead of the noise of carriages. The groups of houses that rise between the canals, are divided by narrow streets or lanes for foot passengers. Venice, notwithstanding its position, is not subject to the unwholesome influence of the marshes; the continual motion of the billows agitates and purifies the air. No springs rise from the sandy soil; some cisterns belonging to private individuals, and a hundred and sixty public cisterns, furnish water to its hundred and ten thousand inhabitants. The lagunes and canals of Venice are its chief security; ships of war cannot attack it, and before the French expedition, which took place in 1797, it was never entered by a hostile army.

[r] Lib. v. c. ii. Martial, Epig. Lib. xiv—Juvenal, Sat. viii.

The church of St. Mark, an edifice remarkable for its rich and costly ornaments, is by no means the finest or largest in Venice; but it has been said, and not without reason, that it resembles nothing else in the world. The broad and low front is divided into five arcades, not unlike the arches of a bridge, and the entrances are formed by five gates of bronze. Above these arcades, a gallery or balcony with a marble balustrade, stretches across the whole front, and in the same gallery are placed the four bronze horses, supposed to have been founded at Corinth. They were removed to Athens; they served to adorn the triumphal arches raised to Nero and Trajan at Rome; they accompanied Constantine to Byzantium, and were transported from Constantinople to Venice, in the thirteenth century; lastly, under the imperial government, they were placed on the Carrousel at Paris, from whence they were returned to their present position in 1815. The Parisians deplored their loss; the day of their arrival was a day of joy to the Venetians; one might almost have imagined that they had recovered their independence with these monuments of their ancient greatness; yet a few days afterwards, when the statue of Napoleon was overthrown, the same people expressed their discontent. The upper part of the building is covered with pyramids, statues, spires, and crosses; the interior is gloomy, and loaded with columns, statues, and gildings; the great altar, or that of St. Sophia, was brought from Constantinople with the bronze horses. Buildings.

The place of St. Mark, the finest in Venice, may bear a comparison with any other in Europe. It is about eight hundred feet long, by three hundred and fifty broad; but it ought not to be judged by its dimensions; when seen from the sea, it has a magnificent appearance. Two columns, formed by two single blocks of granite, rise near the quay; they were brought from Constantinople, but they appear to be of Egyptian workmanship; the one supports the statue of St. Theodore, and the other, the winged lion of St. Mark, which, during several years, was the ornament of the invalids at Paris. The massive architecture of the ducal palace, on the right, has something of the Moorish style. The royal palace, a modern edifice, on the left, adorned with arcades and pillars, the church of St. Mark, the mint, the library, and several fine buildings, the works of the architect Lansorino, form the enclosure of St. Mark's, the scene of Venetian festivals, and the place where strangers and the idle townsmen assemble. The finest shops and the most frequented coffee-houses in Venice, are situated under the arcades of the same square. Place of St. Mark.

The part nearest the quay, is called the *Piazzetta;* at no great distance is the palace, once destined for the sovereign; but little attention is paid to decorum, for, from its windows may be seen the place where criminals are executed; the instruments of death are erected between two pillars, near the street where buffoons and puppets amuse the Venetians. The ancient residence of the doge, the ducal palace, where the state inquisitors used to sit, and which, like the seraglio at Constantinople, has been more than once stained with the heads of the victims, that were exposed on the outer balustrade, may prove, that an aristocracy, armed with republican laws, can be as sanguinary as a despotism, armed with the Ottoman scimitar. It requires a day to examine the interior of the edifice; colossal statues are placed on the staircase; the galleries are adorned with the master pieces of Titian, Paul Veronese, Corregio, and Alberti; the library consists of a hundred and fifty thousand volumes, and a thousand manuscripts. Not the least valuable ornaments, are several ancient statues of admirable workmanship. Ducal palace.

Strangers admire the fine portal of St. Mary of Nazareth, the front of St. Jeremiah, which resembles a palace rather than a church; the peristyle of St. Simon, and the noble architecture of St. Roche. Almost all the theatres are called after some saint; St. Luke's is Churches.

one of the largest; operas are acted in St. Benedict's; tragedies, comedies, and other dramatic compositions, in St. Angelo; but the finest theatre in Venice, or that of St. Felix, was finished in 1793. Protected by these venerable names, the actors are not exposed to the same unjust prejudices which exist in other catholic countries.

Naval arsenal. | The arsenal, including the dock-yards of Venice, formerly the most celebrated and the largest in Europe, was once filled with ships, materials for building, and all kinds of arms; the outer wall measures between two and three miles in circumference, and within these walls, during the republic, two thousand five hundred workmen were constantly employed; stillness and repose have now succeeded the noise and activity of commerce. Two white marble lions placed at the entrance of the arsenal towards the town, were also a conquest of the Venetians; they were transported from Athens. The port of Venice, although at present the largest in the Austrian empire, may in time be covered with the deposites of sand that are every day accumulating.

One may judge of what Venice has been by the number of its edifices and charitable institutions; thirty-six Catholic churches, two Greek churches, an Armenian and Lutheran chapel, seven synagogues, a foundling hospital, two lazar-houses, and twenty-three hospitals, serve to recall its past splendour, and render its decay more apparent.

Instruction. | The artisans form at Venice several corporations, and each corporation maintains a school; the number of corporations amounts to sixteen or eighteen, and some of them meet in sumptuous buildings adorned with paintings and statues. It might be inferred from some institutions, that the Venetians were better informed and more enlightened than any other people. Such, however, is by no means the case, but they may be said to be less ignorant than the other Italians.

Gondolieri. | The *gondolieri* are different from the other inhabitants, they form a distinct population, and the cause may be attributed to the fraternity or union which subsists amongst them; but they are no longer gay sailors, singing Venetian airs, or reciting the verses of Tasso, they have discovered in their simplicity that they are without a country. All these men can read and write, the other workmen in the town can do the same, but the knowledge of the wealthier classes is not more extensive.

Libraries. | The public libraries are ill attended, the others are made up of novels and romances, so that, with the exception of one or two gifted persons, the rest are not better educated than the lower orders in the town that gave birth to Algarotti, Gasparo Gazzi, Goldoni, the Paoli, Bembo, and other great men. The Venetians have no taste for literature; music, however, appears to be a favourite amusement. According to their own confession, the wealthy classes pass their time in the following manner. "People of fashion rise at eleven or twelve o'clock, pay a few visits, and idle away their time till three, when they dine; they lie down in summer during one hour, at least, after dinner; they dress and go to the coffee-house or *casino* till nine, then to the opera, which is another *casino*, then to the coffee-house for an hour or two. They do not go to bed in summer before sun-rise. Many of the most saving dine at the restaurateurs, and the price of their dinner varies from sixteen sous to two franks, or from eightpence to twentypence English money."[a] Although there is a wide difference between the past and present state of Venice, it is still one of the greatest marts in Italy. It has its fabrics and manufactures, a chamber and a tribunal of commerce, an exchange and an insurance company. The last doges celebrated in the island of Malamocco, their marriage with the Adriatic, but Venice could hardly then be called a maritime power.

[a] Simond's Travels in Italy.

A town was built near the ancient queen of the Adriatic, on the island of Torcello, and its ruins announce that it was once an important city. The remains of a church enriched with mosaics and paintings, the ruins of a palace, once the residence of a barbarian conqueror, a market place and a throne raised above it, where Attila, king of the Huns, administered justice, attract the curious to the island; the town itself has disappeared. | Island of Torcello.

Reduced to the state of a chief town in an Austrian province, what power can prevent the ruin of Venice? Those who have seen it forty years ago, can no longer recognise it; such changes have taken place in the capital, which had its navy in the sixth century, which protected Petrarch and encouraged the arts when Europe was in the darkness of barbarism, and which, during nine hundred years, was treated on equal terms with the greatest sovereigns.

BOOK CXXXIII.

EUROPE.

Description of Italy—Third Section—Sardinian Monarchy—Principality of Monaco.

The kingdom of Sardinia consists of the island of the same name, divided into two provinces, and of eight divisions or lieutenancies, making up forty small provinces in the continent. The extent of the latter, from north to south, may be about eighty-eight leagues, and the breadth about forty-six; they form a superficies of two thousand three hundred square leagues. They are bounded on the north by the lake of Geneva and Switzerland, on the east by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, the dutchies of Parma and Massa, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by France.

The southern banks of the Leman lake were inhabited a long time before the Christian era, by the *Nantuates*, the banks of the Doria were peopled by the *Salassi*, concerning whom Strabo has left us some particulars.[a] According to that geographer, the greater part of their territory was situated in a deep valley, the valley of Aosta; he adds, that they were in possession of gold mines; but it appears more probable that they obtained the metal from washings on the alluvial lands, for he affirms that the *Duria*, the present Doria, supplied them with water for carrying on their works, but as by this means the river was often dried, it gave rise to violent contentions between them and their neighbours, who used the water for agricultural purposes. They made war and peace more than once with the Romans, but in their combats, their defiles and mountains were more serviceable to them than their armies. They were bold enough to impose and lay a tax of a drachma on every soldier in the army of Decius Brutus, while he fled from Modena; and they made Messala pay for the firewood and trees necessary for his troops encamped in the neighbourhood. They pillaged, on one occasion, the imperial treasury; and under the pretext of working at the roads and ditches, they rolled large stones and rocks against the Roman legions. The revolts of the Salassi exasperated the Romans, and they were destroyed by Augustus; forty thousand were sold as slaves, and four thousand were incorporated in the pretorian guard. Three thousand Romans sent by Augustus, founded the town of *Augusta*, in the very place where Varro, their conqueror, was en- | Ancient inhabitants.

[a] Strabo, Lib. iv. c. 6, sect. 5.

camped with his army. The same town has given its name to the valley of Aousta or Aosta.

The Taurini inhabited the country between the Alps, the Po, and the Doria; like the Salassi, they were of Celtic origin. The Statielli, concerning whom little is known, inhabited the right bank of the Tanaro, but the country on the west, at the base of the Alps, belonged to a people that were called by the ancients, the *Vagienni*, *Vageni* or *Bageni*.[b] The territory of the Intemelii, an inconsiderable tribe, extended from the southern sides of the Alps, to the sea. Lastly, the Apuani, who gave their name to the town of Apua, the present *Pontremoli*, were settled on the southern sides of the Appenines, in the country between Genoa and Spezzia. The territories of the four last people made up the Roman province of Liguria, the others were included in the Gauls.

Savoy. The country near the Leman lake was called Savoy (*Sapaudia*,) about the fifth century. It was governed at different times by Burgundian, French, and Provençal princes; the emperor Conrad the Salic, raised it into a county, and made it over to Count Humbert. Different domains were added to it in the fifteenth century, and it received the title of dutchy under the emperor Sigismond.

Origin of its dukes. The house of Savoy ranks among the most ancient in Europe. But as its origin is involved in darkness, it is not surprising that genealogists have traced it to Wittikind—the Saxon chief who may be considered the Japhet of the princes in modern Europe—all claim him for their founder. The family of Savoy, sprung from Humbert, who reigned in the eleventh century, might prove an antiquity of eight hundred years. Victor Amadeus the Second was the founder of the Sardinian kingdom; hating the cares of a throne, he resigned in 1730 in favour of his son Charles Emmanuel, whose ingratitude brought his father to the grave. The reign of Charles Emmanuel was glorious, but in consequence of the influence which the French acquired from their conquests over European states, his successors lost all their continental possessions, and the kingdom of Sardinia, confined within the limits of the island, did not recover its ancient rank before the last treaties, by which its continental possessions were restored.

Language. The Sardinian language is not pure Italian, many Latin, Castilian, Greek, and even German words are contained in it; that mixed language is most diffused in the island of Sardinia. Two very different dialects are spoken on the continent, the Savoyard, which according to M. Balbi, offers many varieties,[c] and the Vaudois, which is spoken in Piemont, and chiefly in the province of Pignerol.

Religion. The country is divided into twenty dioceses and six archbishoprics; Catholicism is the religion of the state, all the rest are merely tolerated. Twenty-two thousand Vaudois, residing in the vallies of the Alps, who for at least twelve centuries have professed a worship analogous to the reformed religion, bear in silence the privation of their privileges as citizens. They are excluded from the learned professions; all the scientific or literary situations in the different colleges are shut against them; although a brave and warlike people, they can never rise in the army. The Jews, still more unfortunate, cannot hold landed property, and were obliged to give up the possessions which they acquired under the French government. In the towns they are only permitted to exercise their industry in particular quarters, and are besides compelled to wear a badge by which they may be known. From these facts relative to the Protestants and the Jews, it may be easy to judge of the spirit that animates the Sardinian government, and the discontent that prevails among the different classes of a people, who were dissatisfied, and not without some cause,

[b] Silius Italicus, l. viii. [c] See Atlas ethnographique du globe.

under the French government, but who have since been deprived of the blessings which they enjoyed, without obtaining any redress for their grievances.

When the king of Sardinia was restored to his dominions, the congress at Vienna recommended relatively to Genoa, something like a liberal government, at all events the exclusion of an oppressive one. The French civil and commercial codes had been established, but they have been since so far changed that the records of births and marriages are restored to the clergy, and the ancient mode of hereditary succession is at present in full force. The penal and criminal codes are set aside, and the old barbarous jurisprudence of Piemont, (the torture excepted,) is at present the law of the land. | Legislation.

When the united sovereigns of Europe gave new territories to his Sardinian majesty, they stipulated that no new taxes should be raised without the consent of the people, made known by the assemblies in each district; —yet new taxes have been levied, and these assemblies have never met. In short, the will of the king is the only law on which the rights and liberties of the people depend. He disposes of their effects by taxes, and of their persons by arbitrary imprisonment. The very attempt to emigrate without leave, is an offence corrigible by fine, confiscation, and even ignominious punishment. The judges appointed and revocable at pleasure, determine the costs of a suit, and as their salaries are very moderate, they do not administer, but sell justice. The prerogative of mercy, the brightest jewel in the crown, is subject to a tax, which has been denominated the *royal emoluments*. As the sentence of a judge, says M. Simond, in civil as well as in criminal cases is sometimes set aside arbitrarily, so are private contracts between individuals, however legal, and testaments made in due form. An individual secretly accused may be taken up and kept in a dungeon for years, even for his whole life without trial. When tried, it is in secret; he is not present at the examination of witnesses, he does not even know who they are; and, finally, the judges decide from the report made by one of them, (the *juge d'instruction*,) assisted by the recorder's clerk; there are no instances of an acquitted prisoner being liberated without paying costs.[4] As if it were not enough that the nobles in the county of Nice, in Piemont and in Savoy, had recovered with other feudal rights, that of administering justice, the governors of provinces, in the plenitude of their authority, inflict corporal punishment on those under their jurisdiction, and sentence the people to remain hours, nay days, in the stocks. What more can be done at Constantinople?

The towns in the north of Savoy are not important, Chamberry is more agreeable from its position, than remarkable for its buildings. Saint Jean de Maurienne, a small place, although the chief town in the province of Mariana or Maurienne, consists of ill built houses and dirty streets. The country in the neighbourhood of these two towns is picturesque, fruitful, and well cultivated; lofty mulberry trees, scattered in every direction, indicate that the inhabitants make a good use of their silk worms. | Towns.

The stranger has already crossed the Arque which deecends from the Greek Alps, before he observes the excellent road along Mount Cenis, by which he can now travel in a carriage across mountains, that at no very remote period were ascended by means of chairmen and mules. The *ramasse* is no longer used in descending from the highest point on the road to Lanslebourg; a journey of five miles can no longer be made in seven minutes; the traveller need not commit himself to the skill of a guide, whose feet acted as a helm in directing the light ramasse along the snow, and which, by one false movement, might be precipitated into an | Mount Cenis.

[4] Travels in Italy.

abyss. Another and less rapid declivity has been cut, and that part of the journey may be performed without danger.

But the road of Mount Cenis cannot be compared with the road on the Simplon; a passage cut through the rocks, between Bardi and Aosta, is the magnificent work of the dukes of Savoy; farther to the north, at Aosta, may be seen the remains of Roman buildings, and a triumphal arch erected to Augustus. Beyond Mount Rose, the admiration which was before attracted by the beauties of nature, is concentrated on the noblest monument of human patience and industry. The road along the Simplon surpasses the greatest works of the Romans; it was not enough to burst with gun-powder the chain of the Alps, it was necessary to make a road through these mountains for every sort of carriage. Hannibal and Bernard, the uncle of Charlemagne, had crossed the Alps before Napoleon, but a long period may elapse before any conqueror imitate him in the great undertaking by which Switzerland is for ever united to Italy.

The lake Maggiore forms the limit of the Sardinian possessions; the road which descends from the Simplon winds by it, and traverses the ancient and fine town of Novara, situated to the south of Oleggio, a place frequented by strangers for its mineral waters. Vercelli is interesting from its antiquities; one of them, a manuscript gospel of Saint Mark, written in the fourth century, is preserved in the cathedral. The Cimbri were cut to pieces by Marius on the plains near Vercelli.

Turin. Turin or Torino is situated at the extremity of these plains, not far from the junction of the Po and Doira, a small river that has been sometimes confounded with the one that waters the valley of Aosta. Turin is a very ancient capital; it was the principal city of the Taurini, as its name indicates. It consists of two parts, the old and the new; the one resembles any other ancient and Gothic town, the other has all the elegance of modern cities. But its large and straight streets are dismal and deserted, they are only animated in festivals. Two large squares separate the old from the new town, the latter is perhaps cleaner than any other in Italy, an advantage which is secured by a great number of fountains that water and purify the streets in summer, and clear them of snow in winter. In order to effect the latter operation, the reservoir at the gate of Suza is opened for two hours, and a torrent rushes from it that carries away the snow and every sort of filth from the town.

Royal castle. A street, a mile in length, formed like all the others in the new town, by houses built after the same model, and adorned with porticos, that afford shelter from rain and the heat of the sun, leads to the royal castle. The palace is situated in the centre of a square, and surrounded by a moat; it is a sort of Hermes in architecture, exhibiting on one side a Gothic front, and on the other, the elegance of the Grecian architecture. The staircase that leads to the interior of the building is finer than any in Italy, surpassing those at Caserta, and in the *palazzo reale* of Naples. The number of churches and chapels at Turin amounts to a hundred and ten; the most admired of any is the church of San Lorenzo, the interior is covered with black marble, and several chains hanging down from the ceiling, formerly sustained lamps and candelabras of massive silver, which were taken away by the French; but the same people respected the *saint suaire* or winding sheet of our Saviour, an object of popular superstition. It is supposed to be a true relic, although Genoa possesses another, equally venerated by the populace. The large theatre at Turin was for a long time the finest in Italy; it served as a model for the one at Naples. The university is another building, not inferior in its kind to any at Turin; the entrance to it is formed by a large court encompassed with arcades; and the walls are adorned with basso-relievos and ancient inscriptions.

Other towns. Coni, although peopled by seventeen thousand inhabitants, contains little worthy of notice; it is situated on the banks of

the Stura, towards the south of Turin. The same may be said of Casal on the Po, to the east of Turin; it contains an equal number of inhabitants, but its public buildings are more numerous. The fine road which leads to Genoa, passes through Asti, formerly celebrated in the country for its hundred towers, as Thebes was in ancient times for its hundred gates. But its old walls are now falling into ruins, and its population is rapidly decreasing; although in superficial extent, nearly equal to Turin, it does not contain more than twenty-two thousand souls. The inconsiderable trade of Asti is confined to white and red wines, which are said to be better than any others in Piemont. Alba Pompeia, at some leagues to the south-west of Asti, was embellished by the father of the great Pompey; it is known too as the birth place of the emperor Severus. The road from Asti follows the windings of the Tanaro, and leads to Alexandria. When seen at a distance, Alexandria resembles a village in the midst of a plain. Although a gloomy town, consisting of brick houses, it is one of the strongest places in Italy. It owes its origin to the quarrels between the popes and the emperors, in the twelfth century; it was founded in honour of Alexander the Third, and bore for a long time the name of *Alessandria della paglia*, because its houses were at first covered with straw. A road from Alexandria extends to the north-east, and leads to Tortona and Vogliera. The first, formerly a large and populous town, has now only eight thousand inhabitants; the second contains ten thousand, and is adorned with a fine cathedral of Grecian architecture.

Genoa.

The country assumes a new aspect at the division of the roads to Tortona and Genoa, or the entrance into the Appenines, at one place shaded with forests, at another lined with solitary meadows; the habitations of men become gradually more rare, and at last disappear, before the stranger reaches the defile of Bocchetta. Genoa appears at the base of the mountains, and the Mediterranean is lost in the horizon. It often happens that the Mediterranean is confounded with the mists which cover the country; but in fine weather, its surface, as brilliant as crystal, assumes the azure tint of the sky. Genoa may be seen to the greatest advantage on the side of the sea; it rises in the form of a semicircle, more than three thousand six hundred yards in length, and at one extremity, on the point of a rock, are situated two gigantic piers, and a lighthouse of stupendous proportions. The town is encompassed in a circuit of eight miles, with a double range of fortifications, that are celebrated from the siege that Massena sustained against the Austrians in 1810, and from the courageous resistance of the inhabitants, who endured, for a period of fifty-nine days, all the privations of famine.

The interior of the town consists of very steep and narrow streets between lofty palaces; many of them are covered in the middle with a brick causeway two or three feet wide, for the convenience of mules and porters, for carts cannot ascend them. Two streets, Balbi and the New Street, are accessible to carriages; on both sides of the former, are the most magnificent palaces in Genoa; the flat roofs are adorned with shrubs and trees, or myrtles, pomegranate, orange, lemon, and oleanders, twenty-five feet high, rising from ground several feet deep, conveyed to the roofs, and supported on arches; fountains play among these artificial groves, and keep up their verdure and shade during the heat of summer. The finest edifices are, the palaces belonging to the families of Durrazo, Spinola, Doria, Brignol, and Serra, the ancient ducal palace, and some churches and convents. Among the latter, the church of St. Mary Lavignano, is a building of elegant architecture, and although the inside of the Annonziata is loaded with gilt ornaments, the stranger may regret that its front is still unfinished. The Church of San-Cyro is adorned with fresco paintings, and the Gothic cathedral is covered on the inside and outside with marble of different colours. There are, besides, three well-built hospitals; one of them, the

Albergo dei poveri, is a model in its kind; it affords the means of subsistence to fifteen hundred individuals of every age, and the young are instructed in different trades. The theatres in Genoa cannot be compared with others in many parts of Italy. The only public walks are, the walls of the port, the alleys on Acqua Verde, and the fine bridge of Carignano, which is not less than a hundred feet in height; it rises above houses of six stories, and unites two elevated parts of the town.

Exchange. The exchange, where the noble merchants of Genoa formerly assembled to carry on their mighty trade, has lost much of its activity; although Genoa has been declared a free port; still the appearance of decay is less obvious than at Venice. Genoa was so powerful from its commerce in the time of the Carthagenians, that it excited the jealousy of that people, by whom it was reduced to ashes. Rebuilt by the Romans, it repaired the losses which it sustained at a later period by the invasions of the Huns, the Goths, and the Herules, and afterwards by the conquests of the Lombards and Charlemagne. The famous bank of St. George, the earliest in any commercial town, was established at Genoa in the twelfth century. The rival of Venice in the thirteenth century, it possessed Pera, a suburbs of Constantinople. Having become a powerful republic, it preserved longer than Venice, the primitive form of its government; although forced to implore foreign protection against civil commotions, the love of independence was always the cause of its glory and success. It was from convenience, not from compulsion, that it ceded Corsica to Lewis the Fifteenth. Under the name of the *Ligurian* republic, it received a constitution from republican France; but under the empire, Genoa and its territory were changed into a department. It is difficult to recall these recollections, and not to regret that at the time so many states claimed and obtained their independence, Genoa was not restored to its ancient freedom.

The lower orders in Genoa are civil and obliging; the nobles, unlike those of Turin, are neither distinguished by powdered wigs, gold-headed canes, and a proportionable degree of pomp and solemnity, nor by that sort of etiquette which prevailed in France before the revolution; on the contrary, they are remarkable for the frankness and simplicity of their manners, advantages which must, without doubt, be attributed to their commercial pursuits. The women wear the *mezzaro*, a long white veil, half over the face, and gracefully thrown round the person; it descends nearly to the feet, but does not conceal light shoes and white silk stockings. All the women in the upper classes have *cavalieri serventi*, a custom considered scandalous in other countries, but so common in Genoa, that it is adopted by many persons who are irreproachable on the score of morals.

The love of the arts, the culture of the mind, and a certain freedom of opinion, distinguish the Genoese from the southern Italians. The inhabitants, long accustomed to commerce, still excel in some departments of industry. Genoa has its silk, velvet, and gold lace manufactories; its jewels, perfumes, and artificial flowers, are so many articles of exportation. As to the products of the soil, the oils of Genoa are more valuable than its wines.

Gulf of Genoa. The eastern part of the gulf of Genoa has been long called the River of the Morning, (*Riviera del Levante*;) Spezzia, the largest harbour on the eastern coast, contains six thousand inhabitants. Savona, on the opposite coasts, or the *Riviera del Ponente*, is twice as populous, and possesses a considerable trade in potashes, and in the produce of its earthen and porcelain works; but its commerce might be much increased, if the harbour, which is now useless, was rebuilt. The port of Nice, situated on the same coast, the capital of a province and a diocese, possesses a finer climate than any town in Italy; the winters are not accompanied with frost, and many strangers, particularly English, are attracted to it by the mildness of its temperature.

The small town of Monaco, at two leagues to the east of Nice, is peopled by eleven hundred inhabitants. It stands on a rock which braves the fury of the billows, and on the site of an ancient temple, erected to Hercules Monecus;* its territory, which has been styled a principality, since the tenth century, is governed by the family of Grimaldi, under the protection of his Sardinian majesty. | Principality of Monaco.

The island of Sardinia, or, according to its Greek name, *Sardon*, belonged to the Carthagenians, at the period of their first war with the Romans, by whom they were expelled from the island, which became one of the *Roman granaries;* not long afterwards Corsica and Sardinia formed a single province. While governed by the masters of the world, its population was greater than at present; it then contained forty-two towns, but not more than ten which merit the name, can now be enumerated. The Vandals, having made themselves masters of Spain and the coasts of Africa, took possession of Sardinia in the seventh century. The Pisans and the Genoese succeeded them in the eleventh; two hundred years afterwards, the popes, who seldom neglected the opportunity of adding to their temporal dominions, endeavoured to unite the island to the territories of the church, and the Pisans were twice constrained to submit. James the Second, king of Arragon, made himself master of Sardinia in the fourteenth century, and it continued under the government of Spain, until the year 1708, when the English took it in the name of the emperor of Germany, who gave it up to the duke of Savoy, and received Sicily in exchange. | Island of Sardinia.

The Sardinians remained in a state of barbarism after the middle ages, but comparatively at a late period, and under the paternal government of Savoy, they have been made to participate in the light of knowledge, and in the benefits of civilization. The arts and sciences are now flourishing, and the house of Savoy cannot be ignorant that the present prosperity and improved condition of the inhabitants, are the result of their wise and enlightened measures. The misfortunes of the reigning family, have, perhaps, contributed in producing these good effects; the conquests of the French deprived them of their other possessions, and the progress of improvement was most rapid when the princes resided in the island.

The inhabitants had for a long time, little intercourse with the other Italians; they may still be distinguished from them. The Sardinian is strong, lively, and courageous, even to rashness; of quick passions, he is ardent in his affections, and violent in his hatred. Fond of the marvellous, from his habits or state of civilization, endowed with a vivid imagination, prone to enthusiasm, these qualities account for his devotion to poetry and the fine arts. | Character of the Sardinians.

Cagliari, the capital, stands near the base of a steep hill, on a gulf at the southern extremity of the island; a strong castle built by the Pisans rises above it. The population amounts to twenty-eight thousand inhabitants; it is the residence of the viceroy and the principal authorities. The houses are ill built, and the streets are narrow and crooked. The palace of the viceroy is the only building worthy of notice; the others are, a cathedral, thirty-eight churches, twenty-one convents, an university, a college for nobles, an exchange, and a theatre. Among the useful institutions may be mentioned schools of medicine and mathematics, a library, museums of antiquities and natural history, and different hospitals. The town was founded by the Carthagenians, and was, in ancient times, a place of great commerce; the products of its territory are, corn, oil, wine, cotton, and indigo. Sassari, the town next to it in importance, is situated in a fine valley, on the north-west of the island, and contains fifteen thousand inhabitants. Oristano, a town near the gulf of the same | Towns.

* Virgil, Lib. vi. v. 831.

name, carries on a great trade in tunny, a fish which abounds on the neighbouring coast, and contains six thousand inhabitants. Bosa, a small harbour at the embouchure of the Terno, on the same side of the island, possesses an ancient cathedral, and several convents; the walls which encompassed the town, are now in ruins. It is peopled by five thousand souls. Alghero, on the same coast, carries on a greater trade in corn than any other place in Sardinia. The population amounts to seven thousand inhabitants; its port cannot admit large vessels, but the spacious and fortified harbour of Porto-Conte, at two miles to the east, might contain several fleets.

BOOK CXXXIV.

EUROPE.

Italy.—Fourth Section.—Dutchies of Parma, Modena, Massa, Lucca.—Great Dutchy of Tuscany.—Republic of San Marino.

The country which forms the subject of the present and following chapters, is divided into a greater number of small states than any other part of Italy. Seven independent states occupy a surface of three thousand nine hundred and seventy square leagues, and, without including the Roman territory, they are the most important from the wealth and industry of their inhabitants.

Ancient inhabitants.

In ancient times these states comprehended Southern Cisalpine, Gaul, Etruria, Ombria, Picenum, and Latium. The Anamani, a people of uncertain origin, but who were probably Celtic, inhabited almost all the territory in the dutchy of Parma; their limits were the Po on the north, the Trebia on the west, and the Parma on the east. The Lingones to the south of the Po, and the Boii on the northern declivities of the Appenines, a tribe of the same origin as the people that have been mentioned in the account of Bohemia, were settled in the territories of Modena, Bologna, and Ferrara. The western sides of the Appenines in Etruria, were peopled by the Magelli and Ligures, tribes that in their customs resembled the Gauls. On the shores of the Adriatic, the Sennones, a people of the Gauls, inhabited four centuries before the Christian era, the country near the present republic of San Marino. After the Gauls had crossed the Alps, they were joined by these different tribes, they laid siege to Rome, and were defeated by Camillus. The Picentini inhabited the declivities of the Appenines, which form the present territories of Ancona, Marcerata and Ascoli; they were Sabines by origin. Their country was called *Picenum*, from the great quantity of mineral pitch which it contained. Ombria, situated on the western side of the Appenines, between the Tiber and the Nera, a feeder of the same river, was inhabited by a people sprung from the Gauls. According to Court-de-Gebilin, the Sabines, their neighbours, derived their name from the Celtic word *Sab*, which signifies high or elevated; they occupied the sides and summits of the Appenines. Ancient writers mention the Sabines in the most favourable terms; they were frank, generous and valiant; their women were modest and virtuous; their marriages, says Mentelle, were civil obligations, entered into in the name of the state; a very extraordinary fact, as in ancient times, religious ceremonies were the bases of social contracts. The power of the Sabines is proved in the early history of Rome; the Hernici, the Lucani, the Samnites and Brutii were colonists of the same people. Before their country was conquered by the Romans, their simple and metaphysical worship was exempt from the corruption which characterized polytheism.

The territory between the mouths of the Tiber and the Tolero, or the ancient *Liris*, was called *Latium*, it extended to the lake *Lucrino*. The inhabitants, or the *Latini*, were the descendants of Pelasgians that migrated from Thessaly, and another people, concerning whose origin so little is known, that they have been termed *Aborigenes*.

When Charlemagne carried his victorious arms into Italy, he made himself master of Parma and Placentia; but it is not proved that he gave them to the holy See, and it is equally uncertain that Parma derives its name from the *parma* or round buckler worn by the *Anamani*. But whether it was the effect of policy or the influence which light and religion gave the popes over ignorant and superstitious princes, Rome continued long in possession of these two towns. They became republics at a later period; but civil divisions and the quarrels between the Guelfs and Ghibelins were the means of transferring them to the Corregios, the Scaligers, the Viscontis, the Sforzas, and the popes. When Julius the Second, a most ambitious pontiff, had formed the great league of kings against France, he made himself be invested in the possession of Parma and Placentia by the emperor Maximilian. Paul the Third made them over in 1547 to his son Lewis Farnese, who was assassinated two years afterwards, but his descendants enjoyed them until Elizabeth Farnese, the heiress of the family, married Philip the Fifth, king of Spain, and brought as her dowry these two dutchies into the house of Bourbon. The infants Don Carlos, Don Philip and his sons governed them in succession, but in 1805 the two dutchies were united to the French empire, and formed the department of the Taro. They were made over in 1814 by the congress at Vienna, to the Archdutchess Mary Louisa during her life; the next heirs, for they were nominated, are the Lucchese princes of the house of Bourbon Anjou, and their successors.

Position of the dutchy.

The states of Parma consist of the dutchy of the same name, and two others, Placentia and Guastalla; they are bounded on the north by the Po, on the east by Modena, and on the south and west by Massa and the Sardinian possessions. Parma, the capital, and the largest town in the dutchy, is situated on the banks of the Parma, a torrent that is dry in summer. The old walls and bastions form a circuit of four miles, the streets and squares are spacious, but neither the houses or public build ings are remarkable for their architecture. The cathedral is a Gothic and imposing edifice, the palaces and other churches are simple and destitute of ornaments, but worthy of being visited from the valuable paintings contained in them.

The old Farnese palace, built of brick, resembles a convent, rather than the residence of a prince. In the same edifice are the academy of the fine arts, the library, and the largest theatre in Italy, the greatest work of Vignola, admirable on account of its architecture, and the fine proportion of its parts. The interior is so well arranged that the stage is equally visible from every point in the theatre, and an actor speaking in a low tone of voice is heard at the remotest corner of the house. It may be regretted that so fine an edifice has not been used for more than a century; another theatre of smaller dimensions is situated at a different part of the town. A plain building behind the Farnese palace, is the residence of Mary Louisa; in one of the rooms may be seen the cradle of her son, in others the toilet and costly furniture, which the town of Paris gave to the wife of Napoleon. Parma has been improved by the same person. But before the year 1822, there was no cemetery in the town, the dead were interred in churches, and the church of *San Giovani-Decollato* was reserved for criminals. Physicians were aware that the customs had been injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and it was abolished by the reigning princess; a large piece of ground without the walls of the town has been converted into a cemetery; Parma possesses five charitable institutions and an hospital for girls,

founded by the archdutchess; the management is committed to a director and to five ladies, one of whom must visit it every day.

Placentia. Guastalla, the metropolis of an ancient dutchy, contains little worthy of notice. Placentia, like Parma, is encompassed with walls and ditches, but it is perhaps better built. The ducal palace, although a brick building, still serves to proclaim the wealth of the Farnese, and the talent of Vignola, who planned it. Other edifices may attract the notice of strangers; but, like Versailles, Placentia consists of straight, broad, and desert streets, in many places not unlike roads. The court of the palace is decorated with two equestrian statues, representing princes of the Farnese family. It has been supposed that the town owes its name to its fine situation and salubrious air. Two centuries before the Christian era, it was one of the principal cities in the Roman republic; but no traces of its antiquity remain; it was devastated in the wars between Otho and Vitellius. It sustained a memorable siege against Totila in the year 545; the inhabitants suffered so much from famine, that they appeased their hunger with human flesh.

Celebrated men. The same town has given birth to several distinguished men, to Ferrante, Pallavicini, an ecclesiastic of the seventeenth century, not less celebrated for his writings than his tragical death, in which Rome had some share; to Lorenza Valla, who contributed in the fifteenth century to restore the Latin language to its ancient purity in Italy; to Gregory the Tenth, who ordained, that at the death of a pope, the cardinals should be confined in conclave until the election of his successor; lastly, to cardinal Alberoni, who has been termed the Richelieu of Spain.

Neighbourhood of Placentia. The burgh of Campre-Moldo, is the Campo Morto, near which Hannibal defeated the Romans, at the battle of the Trebia. The remains of Vellia, a town that appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake, were discovered in the year 1760; they are covered with stones and earth that rise to the height of more than twenty feet. The great quantity of bones, medals, and other valuable articles, which have been from time to time discovered, indicate that the inhabitants, like those in Herculaneum, had not time to escape, but were ingulfed with their riches. Vellia was the metropolis of thirty towns and burghs, of which, the names inscribed on a bronze table, still preserved in Parma, resemble the names of many villages in the neighbourhood.

Industry. The commerce of Parma is inconsiderable, it consists of silk, lace, and different liqueurs. Rice and silk are the principal products of the dutchy. Workmen collect annually near the Salzo-Maggiore, at ten leagues to the south of the capital, three hundred thousand hundred weights of salt, which forms nearly two thirds of the consumption. The Petroleum oil, used by the inhabitants, is obtained in great quantities from the same salt springs.

Dutchy of Modena. The dutchy of Modena, situated between the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, the dutchies of Parma, Lucca, and the states of the church, is about thirty leagues in length, and about fourteen in breadth. The state, after having belonged to the emperors, the popes, the Venetians, the dukes of Mantua, Ferrara, and other princes, was added in the thirteenth century to the possessions of the house of Este, that reigned at Ferrara. It was united to the Cisalpine republic in 1796, and formed afterwards a part of the kingdom of Italy. But the archduke Francis, who succeeded by right of his mother to the ancient dutchy, took possession of it in 1814.

Town of Modena. Modena, an agreeable and well-built town, of which the streets are formed by arcades, contains no remarkable edifice except the vast ducal palace, which stands isolated in a large square. It gave birth to Gabriel Fallopius, the most distinguished anatomist of the six-

teenth century, and it has contributed to the advancement of science by the labours of its scientific society.

Reggio, the ancient Regium, which was ruined by the Goths, and rebuilt by Charlemagne, was joined to the dominions of the house of Este, after having been long governed by its own magistrates. It was formerly the chief town in a dutchy, of which the title was restored by Napoleon, and conferred on one of his bravest generals. The fortifications are not more important than those round Modena; but the town is well built, it contains a great number of convents, and carries on a trade in silk. Reggio was the birth-place of Ariosto. The country between Modena and Reggio is pleasant and fruitful; the hills in the neighbourhood are covered with country houses, and vines entwined round fruit trees. The small town of Mirandola, in the northern part of the dutchy, was governed by a prince, who, at an early age, was a prodigy of erudition, and who afterwards renounced his principality to devote himself to the sciences. | Reggio.

The dutchy of Massa does not exceed fifteen square leagues in superficial extent; it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the Sardinian states, and the dutchies of Modena and Lucca; although a very small district, it is, perhaps, the finest part of Italy. No valley can be more romantic than that of the *Fiume-Frigido*, a stream, descending from mountains, and enlarged by melted snow, forming water-falls, in the higher or narrow part of the plain, shaded by lofty trees, that add to the coolness and freshness of the air, even in the midst of summer. But towards its other extremity, the valley becomes broader, and the view from it more extensive; in spring, when the heat of the sun begins to dry the plains, the snow and the verdure of the meadows, when seen from a distance, form long streaks on the sides of the mountains. | Dutchy of Massa.

The dutchy depended formerly on Modena, but its territory was added to the principality of Lucca and Piombino, which Eliza Bacciochi, the sister of Napoleon, governed in the time of the empire. It was anew made a dutchy, in 1814, and restored to the archdutchess Mary Beatrice, after whose death it reverts to her son, the duke of Modena.

The small town of Massa is finely situated on a plain at no great distance from the Mediterranean. The ruins of the cathedral serve to recall an unjust act of power, committed by the last princess, whose government has rendered her dear to the people, still she was not free from the faults to which persons are liable, that rise suddenly from low to high stations. Eliza Bacciochi thought the cathedral too near the palace; chanting was apt to make her melancholy, and the smell of frankincense made her cough; for these reasons the venerable building was demolished, although the inhabitants were clamorous, and the magistrates remonstrated. | Town of Massa.

The town of Carrara derives its importance from inexhaustible marble quarries, that have been worked for a period of more than two thousand years. The neighbouring hills are almost wholly composed of marble; their mean height may be about twelve hundred feet, and their extent not less than two leagues. The marble does not form strata; the finest and the whitest sort is united with the kind that the inhabitants use in building their houses. More than twelve hundred men are employed in working the quarries, and the duty levied on the exports from them, makes up a tenth part of the public revenue. | Carrara.

The dutchy of Lucca, situated between Massa and the great dutchy of Tuscany, was changed into a republic, after the death of the countess Matilda, in 1115; it continued, however, more or less subject to the emperors, and Lewis of Bavaria erected it anew into a dutchy, about the year 1316. Its government was often changed, but it preserved its freedom from the fifteenth century to the period when it was | Dutchy of Lucca.

united to the states of Eliza Bacciochi. It was granted as an indemnity to the ducal family of Parma in 1815, and it is to be afterwards annexed to the great dutchy of Tuscany.

Industry. The Lucchese are the most industrious people in Italy, as the state of their agriculture, their trade in olive oil, their velvet and silk manufactures, sufficiently evince. Probity is always the companion of industry, and the honesty of the Lucchese peasants has been commended by many travellers.

Town of Lucca. The town of Lucca is watered by the Cerchio; it has its ramparts and palaces, but the ramparts are slight fortifications, and the strong walled palaces with their grated windows might be mistaken for prisons. The bulwarks, adorned with lofty trees, form agreeable walks; but the roofs of the houses, terminating in points, the irregular and tortuous streets, render Lucca more like a northern than an Italian city. All the churches are too profusely streaked or adorned with different coloured marble. The celebrated springs in the neighbourhood are much frequented, their temperature is about 45° of Reaumur.

Great dutchy of Tuscany. The great dutchy of Tuscany forms the most important principality in Italy; it is bounded by the dutchies of Lucca, Modena, the states of the church, and the Mediterranean. Although the climate is unwholesome, particularly in the part near the sea, Tuscany is noted for its fruitful soil and romantic scenery. The wines of the same country are valuable; the red resembles Claret, and the white is more delicate than Sauterne. But the labours of the vine-dresser are sometimes destroyed by winds and inundations, and the burning sirocco exerts too often its fatal influence.

Maremma. The Maremma, a territory, so called from its vicinity to the sea, is the most unhealthy region in Tuscany, and one, not less remarkable for its pestilential humidity, than the other districts for their fertility or the fine and diversified scenery, of which the description has been given by Addison. The Maremma extends along a distance of forty-three leagues to the neighbourhood of Sienna, Pisa, and Leghorn. It may be equal in superficial extent, to sixteen or seventeen hundred English square miles; the present population does not exceed forty persons for every square mile; but before the country was conquered by the Romans, it was the most populous region in Italy; for in the Maremma were situated the Etruscan towns of *Rosella*, *Saturnia*, *Populonia*, *Cossa*, and *Ancedonia*; in the last place, walls, baths, amphitheatres, and other ancient monuments still remain.[a] But the country and the towns have been desolated by the depredations of the Romans, and the successive invasions of barbarians. Destitute of inhabitants, the Maremma is covered with wood, and the waters, which an industrious people confined in canals, have formed numerous marshes, and their exhalations occasion dangerous diseases. Before the Etrusci or Rhasenæ were settled in the Maremma, the land was probably in the same state as at present, but they surmounted the obstacles arising from the insalubrity of the soil, and the country became flourishing. Colonies of Greeks, perhaps Egyptians, were settled in the Maremma; the emperor Claudius had his country-houses and gardens in the same region, which was well adapted for the vine and different fruit trees. Every thing like agricultural wealth has now disappeared, and the stranger observes only the wretched cottages of a few peasants, in the places where a numerous and industrious population devoted themselves to agriculture. The dukes of Tuscany made several vain attempts to repeople these marshy districts. Como the Third encouraged a colony of Maniotes from the Peloponesus, but in a short time they were destroyed by the effects of the climate; colonists from Lorraine were afterwards invited, and they

[a] See the Memoir of M. Thaon, sur les moyens propres à encourager la culture la Maremma.

shared the same fate. Much remains to be done before the land can be rendered useful for agriculture; able men must be consulted on the best method of checking the fatal effects of pestilential exhalations; the soil must be drained by government, and agriculturists must determine the plants best adapted for the climate, or the most likely to repay the husbandman for his outlay and labour.

Tuscany erected into a dutchy.

Tuscany was conquered by the Goths, in the sixth century, and they kept possession of it during sixty years. Alboin, king of the Lombards, having defeated them, erected the country into a dutchy, and made it a fief, dependent on his crown. Charlemagne, having conquered Lombardy, appointed counts, who were afterwards entitled marquises, over the dutchy; they were the vassals of the empire.

The cities in Tuscany retained their prosperity for a long time; they were governed by magistrates appointed by the citizens. Rome, in order to weaken the imperial power, induced these towns to enter into a league, similar to the one formed by the towns of Lombardy. The execution of the plan was reserved for Innocent the Third, *and the honour and aggrandisement of the apostolic see*, became the watch word of citizens who were long faithful to their engagements.[b] Pisa, Sienna, and Florence, were the most important of these republics; and their chiefs were styled *Gonfalonieri*. They had amassed considerable wealth by commerce in the fourteenth century; but, as if states that acquire power by usurpation, were destined to submit to usurpers in their turn, Florence, having taken possession of Pisa unjustly, was punished in becoming the domain of the Medicis, a family that, by fortunate speculations, had become the most wealthy in the town. Alexander of Medicis was made duke of Florence in 1531, by the interest of Charles the Fifth, and his son obtained from the pope and the emperor the title of great duke. After the extinction of the Medicis, in 1737, the dutchy passed to the duke of Lorraine, who ceded that province to France. The same duke was raised to the imperial throne, and his son was appointed his successor in Italy. But the house of Lorraine was deprived of the dutchy by Napoleon, who gave it to his sister Eliza.[c] Lastly, the archduke was restored to his dominions in 1814, and Elba was added to his states in the following year.

Rivers.

The two principal streams in Tuscany are the Ombrone and the Arno, they throw themselves into the sea. The Arno, enlarged by several streams, may be considered a river; it made formerly a long circuit, but its course has been shortened and confined by dykes, and the lands which it inundated are now cultivated. The valley of the Arno, in the Appenines, from which the river takes its source, was in the time of the Florentine and Pisan republics, embellished with the country houses of wealthy merchants; in the same valley, at present peopled by workmen, are manufactured the linen stuffs that form an important article in the commerce of Tuscany, and also the straw hats well known as Leghorn hats, from the name of the port whence they are shipped to all parts of the world.

Pisa.

The Arno crosses Pisa at the distance of a league from its embouchure. The town is one of the most ancient in Italy; the streets are broad and well paved, the cathedral, a Gothic edifice, is built of marble; three bronze gates adorn the portal, and seventy-four columns, sixty-two of which are of oriental granite, support the roof. The interior, it must be admitted, is rather gloomy; an old chandelier of rusty metal hangs from the vault. Galileo happened to be in the church, when a workman carrying a ladder, struck the chandelier by accident, and its swinging motion suggested to the philosopher the first notion of the pendulum. The first pendulum clock constructed by Galileo, is still preserved at Pisa. The *Baptistery* is a church reserved for baptisms; its Gothic vault

[b] Muriatori dissertatio 48, tome iv. p. 320. [c] Decrets des 2 et 6 Mars, 1809.

is so sonorous as to produce several effects which guides never fail to indicate to strangers; if the floor or pavement be struck, it resounds for a long time; if a person speaks in a loud voice, an echo repeats several syllables, or if he speaks in a whisper in any corner of the church, he is distinctly heard at the opposite extremity.

Sloping tower. The *Campanile Torto*, or sloping tower, has been considered the most singular edifice in Pisa. Beautiful columns of white marble rise from its base, and support six tiers of arcades, surmounted by a tower of smaller diameter than the base. The height of tower is not less than a hundred and ninety feet, and the inclination from the ground to the summit, about fifteen. At the sight of so singular a monument, it is difficult to decide whether it was the original intention of the architect to construct it with so great an inclination, or whether, as many professional persons suppose, it may be attributed to the sinking of the ground.

Campo Santo Not far from the sloping tower, the cicerone show with veneration the Campo Santo, a rectangular court of vast size, surrounded with a sort of Gothic arcade, the walls of which are painted in fresco. It was constructed in the thirteenth century for the purpose of securing an enormous heap of earth, brought from the Holy Land by the Pisans after the third crusade; it is said to be nine feet deep, and as the extent of the Campo Santo is rather more than two English acres, it must have required almost fifty ships of three hundred tons burthen, and perhaps three times that number of such vessels as were then in use, to transport so great a mass of sanctified mould.[4] It is believed that the bodies which are buried in it are very speedily consumed; the time formerly required, was said to be less than twenty-four hours, the Pisans themselves admit that it takes at present more than two days; their calculations are in all probability incorrect, such miracles must be confirmed by undoubted experiments.

Florence. Florence or Firenza rises on the banks of the Arno, at a greater distance from its mouth than Pisa. Four bridges are built across the river, and these communicate with four quarters, two leagues in circumference, and three thousand yards in length. Florence, if it may be so said, was the cradle of the arts at the time of their regeneration, and the numerous objects of art still contained in the same place render it one of the most remarkable cities in Europe. Michael Angelo thought it impossible for an architect to raise so fine a building as the cathedral; an isolated tower at no great distance serves as its belfry, and Charles the fifth was so much pleased with its finished elegance, that he said it ought to be kept in a glass case, in order to defend it from the wind and atmosphere. The three bronze gates of the Baptisery are worked with so much art that Michael Angelo thought them worthy of being placed at the entrance into paradise. The royal chapel or the tomb of the Medicis, begun about about three centuries ago, and likely to be never finished, is one of the most curious works in Italy; jaspers, lapis lazuli, granite, alabaster, and the rarest marbles are collected in such profusion, that it resembles not so much a sepulchral monument as a magnificent mosaic. The church of Santa Croce, a brick building originally intended to be covered with marble, contains the ashes of illustrious men. The tomb of Michael Angelo supports his own bust by himself, that of Vittorio Alfieri was adorned by Canova; there too are the remains of Galileo, Arentino, and Macchiavelli, who is represented weighing a sword and a roll of paper in a balance.

Ducal palace. The *Poggo Imperiale*, the palaces *Ricardi*, *Strozzi*, *Corsini*, and *Germi*, are worthy of being described, but it would be necessary to enter into details incompatible with our limits. The ducal palace,

[4] M. Simond's Travels in Italy.

called *Palazzo Pitti*, from the name of the person who built it in the year 1460, exhibits a character of solidity which promises ages of duration. It consists of three lofty stories divided into nine hundred apartments. Many of them, carved and gilt all over, are furnished in the most costly manner. In one suite are contained a valuable collection of paintings and a number of Florentine and mosaic tables, differing from the other mosaics in Italy, by the large pieces of which they are formed. The labour required in these works is hardly credible; fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five years have been spent by a set of artists working together to finish a single table.* The famous Venus of Canova decorates one of the halls, and the palace communicates with the Florentine gallery by a passage six hundred paces in length. A stranger may there judge of the past magnificence of the Medicis; he may admire the Venus that bears their name, other ancient statues which were long the principal ornaments in the Louvre, and several *chefs d'œuvre* by the greatest Italian painters. The Boboli gardens adjoining the palace are in the taste transmitted to us by the ancients; they are praised by the Italians, who admire rectangular walks flanked with cut trees, fashioned into a wall, or arched overhead. The squares and streets in Florence are adorned with a hundred and fifty statues. Two obelisks rise on the *piazza* of *Santa Maria Novella*, which serves as a course for chariot races, similar to those of the ancients; horse races are also an amusement, the race ground is more than two miles in length. The quays in Florence are much finer than any in Paris.

Prato rises to the north of Florence towards the Appenines, on the banks of the Bisenzio; it is a place of some trade, the inhabitants manufacture copper utensils, and its fairs are more frequented than any in Tuscany. Pistoia is situated at the base of the Appenines; there are few towns in Italy in which the streets are so large or so straight; it formed at one time a republic; it carries on a trade at present in fowling pieces, silk, and straw hats. | Towns.

At a league to the east of the canal that unites the *Arno* and the *Chiana*, is situated Arezzo, an ancient town, of which the Latin name was derived, according to some, from *Aretia*, a surname of Vesta, and according to others from the eastern word *Aretz*, which corresponds with its situation, and signifies *an agreeable place on the waters*. In the time of the Etruscans it was known from its pottery, its wine, and a fountain from which oracles were delivered. It was the birth-place of many great men, of Mæcenas, of the martyr of Saint Lorenzo, of Petrarch, Guy or Guido, who invented or discovered anew the notes of music of Pope Julius the Second, and Concini, marshal of Ancre. | Arezzo.

On the Appenines, and at eight leagues to the north of the town, stands the famous convent of the Camaldolites, founded in the beginning of the eleventh century. Cortona, on the south-east of Arezzo, rises on the declivity of a hill which overlooks a fine plain, watered by the Perugian lake. It is supposed to occupy the site of Corythum, a town mentioned by Virgil, but which did not exist in his time.† Walls constructed of very large stones that are not united by any cement, may still be seen near Cortona; they were raised by the most ancient inhabitants of Etruria. Although a very small place, it has possessed since the year 1726, an Etruscan academy, which has been of much use by its researches.

"Fallen from its former rank, as a republican city containing a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, to that of a provincial town having only fifteen or twenty thousand, and the melancholy title of capital of the *Maremma*, Sienna exhibits no signs of decay, but on the contrary every appearance of active industry. Scarcely any beggars, the streets well paved and very clean; the shops numerous and well supplied; the peo- | Sienna.

* Simond's Travels. † B. III. v. 170.

ple well dressed, and the women remarkably good looking and graceful even in the ludicrous attitude of riding astride on donkeys, which seems the custom both with ladies and market women, all showing their garters at the top of a well formed leg, and snow white stockings. The cathedral is a nondescript edifice, built in the thirteenth century, when the Gothic style of architecture prevailing beyond the Alps, was with difficulty making its way in Italy. It is therefore but half Gothic half Grecian; slender shafts with Corinthian tops and round arches. The most remarkable feature of this singular edifice, is the party coloured marble on the outside; broad stripes of dingy brown and dirty white alternately, like the zebra's skin. Nothing can possibly be in worse taste; but the inlaid pavement done in 1460, is on the contrary very beautiful."[s]

Piazza del Campo.

There is only one square at Sienna, the Piazza del Campo; it is hollowed in the form of a basin, adorned with a fine fountain, and lined with palaces in the Gothic style. Saint Catherine, the tutelar saint of the town, is as celebrated in the country, as Saint Genevieve was in Paris. Born in the fourteenth century, the daughter of a poor dyer, she acted an important part in the ecclesiastical affairs of Italy. She was sent to Gregory the Eleventh to persuade him to quit Avignon, and to restore the papal throne at Rome. It is said that a society was established in 1464 in the house inhabited by the saint; it endowed every year the daughters of poor artisans, who walked in procession on her anniversary, and some of them on these occasions made choice of their husbands. A number of young men stood near the procession, and each gave a handkerchief to her whom he loved; if she refused, she kissed the handkerchief, and returned it; if she consented, she tied a knot on it, and then presented it to her bridegroom.

A Roman colony was sent to Sienna by Augustus, and it was then called *Colonia Senensis*. The Italian language is spoken in greater purity in the same place, than in any other town in Tuscany; the pronunciation or accent of the Siennese is also the most agreeable. It possesses several academies and an university; the inhabitants are gay, lively, and well informed; it has produced several celebrated men; among others, seven popes, and Socinus, the chief of the Unitarians, who reject the mystery of the trinity, and believe Christ, although participating in the divine nature, to be inferior to God.

Volterra, Leghorn.

The road from Sienna to Leghorn crosses the Etruscan town of *Volterra*, the name of which remains the same, but the population, which amounted formerly to a hundred thousand, is now reduced to four thousand inhabitants; once one of the twelve principal cities in Etruria, but now almost deserted, it leads to the populous town of Leghorn, a small burgh in 1120, but at present peopled by seventy-five thousand individuals, including the inhabitants of its three suburbs, which contain more than thirty thousand. The streets are broad and well built, the port is frequented by merchant ships, and the town is a place of extensive trade. The principal edifices are the store-houses, the arsenals, and the three lazarettos. The only monument worthy of notice, is the marble statue of Duke Ferdinand the First, in the attitude of a conqueror, with four bronze slaves at his feet. The harbour is six hundred yards in length, and seventy-two in breadth; hulks are kept for the purpose of taking away the pebbles and alluvial deposites, which are carried by the sea. A great many Jewish and Greek merchants are settled in the town; some of the exports are soap, alabaster, and coral.

Ophthalmia.

Ophthalmia is a disease peculiar to its soil; it has been erroneously attributed to the sandy dust driven by the winds, and to the humidity of the quarter called *New Venice*, on account of its numerous

[s] Simond's Travels in Italy and Sicily, page 570.

canals; it appears, on the contrary, to arise from the comparative coldness of the night air during the summer season.

Piombino, a sea port to the south of Leghorn, is situated at a short distance from the ancient Etruscan town of Populonia, which was destroyed in the ninth century by the patrician Niceus, but some of its remains and walls united without cement, are still extant. Near these walls are extensive ruins, which, according to some, were originally an ampitheatre, while others suppose them to have been part of the ancient Vetulonia. Piombino stands on a rock, and gives its name to the neighbouring gulf. The air and climate are unwholesome, and the population, which peace and commerce have not augmented, does not exceed two thousand inhabitants. Piombino.

The island of Elba, not more than three leagues from the continent, may be distinctly seen from Piombino. It was subject in the thirteenth century to the Pisans; it was afterwards taken by the Genoese, and remained at different times in the possession of the dukes of Milan, and the king of the two Sicilies, who ceded it to France in 1801. The island contains fourteen thousand inhabitants; it was the residence of Napoleon, to whom it was given in sovereignty by the treaty of 1814, and who, by quitting it on the 25th of February, 1815, in order to return to France, brought on that kingdom a second foreign invasion more disastrous than the first. Island of Elba.

Porto-Ferrago, a fortified town with a harbour on the northern coast, and containing five thousand inhabitants, is the capital of the island. Porto-Longone, a small town of fifteen hundred inhabitants, is defended by a fortress built on a rock; its harbour has been called the Marina.

Tuscany owes to Duke Leopold the prosperity which it still enjoys; that prince had corrected many abuses before the year 1772; the convents were not nearly so numerous as in other Italian states, indeed the most useless orders were abolished, the Inquisition was rendered merely nominal, the punishment of death was almost unknown, for it was only once inflicted during his reign; the system of taxes was improved, and they were regularly paid; industry and commerce were freed from their shackles, and education was encouraged among the lower orders, a class of people that are kept in Italy in the most abject ignorance. These improvements, which are honourable to the greatest prince that ever governed Tuscany, prepared the people to adopt without reluctance the French laws; but during the late changes, part of the old system was amalgamated with the Napoleon code; the lands of religious communities were restored; new abuses were introduced, and the Tuscans, whose mildness is proverbial, a people very easily satisfied, have ventured to complain. Condition of Tuscany.

During the fifth century, a Dalmatian hewer of stones, whose piety induced him to preach Christianity, built a hermitage on the coast of the Adriatic, near the summit of Mount Titan. The hermitage was called Marino; his religious zeal made him add the title of saint, and after his death he received the honours of canonization. A town rose in the year 600 near the hermitage of San Marino, from which it took its name. It was formed into a republic, fortifications were erected, and two or three small fortresses in the neighbourhood, were in course of time acquired. The popes took possession of the republic in 1739, a very insignificant conquest, but the emperor of Germany restored it to freedom. Enclosed by the states of the Holy See, it is at present under the protection of the pope. The small republic, which adopted the following protocol, in writing to Venice, *Alla nostra carissima sorella, la Serenissima republica di Venetia*, occupies a surface of five square leagues; the town of San Marino and two villages are contained in it. The wines, or the products of its territory, supply its commerce. The sovereignty is vested in a council of three hundred ancients, and the executive power in a senate, Republic of San Marino.

composed of twenty patricians, twenty burgesses, and twenty peasants, whose presidents are two *gonfalonieri*, elected every three months. These two magistrates have a guard of thirty men, but if the freedom of the republic is endangered, every citizen becomes a soldier.

BOOK CXXXV.

EUROPE.

Description of Italy.—Fifth Section.—Description of the States of the Church.

Temporal and scriptural power of the popes.

ALTHOUGH the subjects of the different princes in Italy resemble each other in several particulars, we think it right to describe, in a separate chapter, a state which, in a political point of view, differs from every other in Europe. It is not uninteresting to contemplate an elective monarchy, having for its domain the earth, in which it only occupies a point, and for its empire the heavens, from which it looks at kings as its inferiors. It is not easy to define or even to characterize such a power as the throne of Rome, which passes for the most ancient in Europe. The papal tiara is adorned with a triple crown, he who fills the throne, and wears the diadem, is called the successor of St. Peter; in general, he may be as much entitled from his advanced age as from his rank as prince of the church, to the homage and veneration of his people; but he claims the homage of kings, and all the powers on the earth. Is it as the successor of St. Peter that he is clothed in purple and fine linen, that he wears the emblems of royalty, that he has his soldiers, that justice is administered in his name, that he prevents crime by punishing the guilty? The two powers with which he is vested, are incompatible with each other; can the *servant of the servants of God* appear without inconsistency in royal pomp? Is it not unnecessary that he should be the weakest prince in Christendom, in order, as the vicar of our Saviour, to be greater than the kings of the earth? Such are the reflections which naturally occur in considering the pope as uniting the sovereign power with his dignity, as chief of the church. But what appears an anomaly at a time when governments and powers are defined, might, in the early ages of Christianity, have resulted from the course of events, from the force of circumstances.

Origin of their temporal power.

The supremacy of the apostolic see at Rome, over the other churches, dates from a very remote period. Ireneus, bishop of Lyons, in the second century, and Saint Cyprian, bishop of Carthage in the following century, admitted it as an incontestible point, without, however, deducing all the consequences which were afterwards derived. Before the period that Italy was invaded by Pepin, the popes had no political power, no temporal possessions. The pretended donation made by Constantine to Sylvester the First, has been considered fabulous by the most able critics, and by the Ultramontanes themselves.[a] Pepin, mayor of the palace of Childeric the Third, wishing to maintain his usurpation by the consent of the nation, and the authority of the church, consulted, solemnly, pope Zacharia, who answered, like the oracles of old, that the sovereignty belonged to him who exercised the royal power. Such an answer satisfied the scruples of the minister; his master was confined in a convent, and he himself was proclaimed king by the French. But when

[a] See Histoire de l'Eglise et de l'empire by J. Lesueur, tom. ii.—Histoire de la délivrance de l'Eglise, by Father Morin.—Dictionnaire de Moreri, Article Sylvestre.

Pepin had expelled the Lombards from the exarchate of Ravenna, he gave it, from a motive of gratitude or policy, to pope Stephen the Second. The donation was afterwards ratified by Charlemagne, who added to it Perugino and the dutchy of Spoletto. The bishops of Rome being raised to the rank of temporal princes, were no longer destitute of ambition; it was not, however, before their spiritual power reached its height, that they extended their dominions. The emperor, Henry the Third, gave them the dutchy of Benevento, in the eleventh century; Matilda, countess of Tuscany, bequeathed to the Holy See the territories of Bolsena, Bagnarea, Monte-Fiascone, Viterbo, Civita-Castellana, Corneto, Civita-Vecchia, and Bracciano, possessions which form the *Patrimony of St. Peter*. Rome, then merely the residence of the popes, belonged to the empire; it was divided by republican factions. Men possessing qualities that were ill adapted to the spirit of the age, attempted vainly to establish a free government. Rome and the contiguous province of Sabina were not included in the domains of the Holy See, until the end of the fourteenth century. Lewis Gonzaga, general of Clement the Seventh, united the marches of Ancona to the states of the church in 1532. The dutchy of Urbino, which belonged to the family of Julius the Second, became the possession of the popes, in 1626. The latest conquests the popes made, were Orvietano, the dutchy of Castro, and the county of Romiglione. The two last principalities were the inheritance of pope Paul the Third, and he left them to his son Farnese, who became duke of Parma and Placentia; but one of his descendants mortgaged them at the Mount of Piety, in Rome, for a sum which he was unable to pay, and Innocent the Eleventh took possession of them.

Late events.

The part which the pope took, as a temporal prince of the church in the European coalitions against France, was attended with disastrous consequences; it is by no means improbable, that if Napoleon had retained his power, the popes might have been reduced to their ancient condition under the eastern empire. The invasion of the French into Lombardy and the states of the church, forced Pius the Sixth to conclude a treaty on the nineteenth of June, 1796. It was stipulated that he should cede to France a certain number of statues, vases, pictures, and five hundred manuscripts, chosen by commissaries of the republic, that he should pay a contribution of 800,000*l.*, grant a free passage to French troops, open his ports to French vessels, and shut them against the ships of every state at war with the French republic. The treaty was soon broken by the pope himself; fortune seemed to declare against France, and Pius the Sixth took possession of Ferrara in the following year. A letter intercepted by Buonaparte, proved that his holiness was treating with the emperor of Germany; but at the approach of the conqueror, new conditions were proposed by the Holy See. The sum of thirty-six millions of franks or 1,500,000*l.* was exacted by the French generalissimo, and the other terms of the former treaty were anew concluded. But the assassination of the French general Duphot, at Rome, in the course of the same year, furnished the Directory with a pretext for overturning the papal government. General Berthier received orders to march against Rome, and the states of the Holy See were transformed into a republic. When the French left Italy, the ephemeral republic fell of its own accord. The Roman states, in consequence of new political combinations, were united to the crown of Italy, in 1808; Rome and Paris were then fixed as places of residence for the pope. A new revolution was the result of the events in 1814, and Pius the Seventh recovered the ancient possessions of the church.

Extent and division of the Roman states.

The Roman states are bounded by the Adriatic sea on the east, by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom on the north, by the dutchies of Tuscany and Modena on the south-west, and by the kingdom of Naples on the south. Their extent in one direction exceeds

ninety-five leagues, and twenty-five in the other; their surface may be equal to two thousand two hundred and forty square leagues. Ancient denominations, such as dutchies, counties, and others which have been already mentioned, were abolished; the country is now divided into three districts and seventeen *legations*. The example of the French system was the means of occasioning reforms in the laws, in the administration of justice, and in the distribution of taxes; much, however, still remains to be done, and it is to be feared that the popes may be always unable to establish, within their dominions, the moral improvement, the love of industry, and other good qualities, of which the Roman people are, perhaps, susceptible under a different government. To form an idea of the manners and government of the people in the Roman states, one must visit the capital, not the minor towns.

Rome. The ordinary method of life at Rome may be termed a long lent, so much attention do all the inhabitants pay to the exterior duties of religion. That large city, which might contain three times more than its present population, has a sombre appearance, rendered more striking by large squares, spacious and desert streets, numerous monks or priests, and the majestic ruins which are seen at every step. The very market places are almost as much deserted on market days as the rest of the town. But the stillness is changed into noisy mirth at the time of Carnival; Rome is no longer the same city, all ranks are then confounded, the churches are deserted, and the streets can hardly contain the inhabitants, all of whom leave their houses, and join in the joyous throng. On

Moccoletti. these days of folly are seen young abbots, grave magistrates, even prelates, covered with masks, in quest of pleasure, which may be easily found, for both sexes are persuaded that a few moments of error are fully expiated by the penitence and holy privations of lent. Tumultuous crowds assemble on the Corso, which is on these occasions lined with two files of carriages; pieces of tapestry and other ornaments are suspended from every window; *confetti*, or small fragments of puzzolana, dipt in lime water to imitate sugar plums, are thrown against the foot passengers and the equipages, followed by the shouts and applause of a multitude, in masks of every colour.

Horse races. At a given signal, the report of a cannon, the middle and the greater part of the Corso are cleared; horses without riders are seen in full gallop, tinsel glittering about their manes and tails, ribands, with burning matches streaming in the wind; sparks flying from their back, sides, and every part of their body; thus galled and tormented, the frightened animals run at full speed.

The follies of the Carnival, which may be compared to the *lupercalia* of the ancient Romans, are accompanied with other diversions on the night of Shrove Tuesday; men, women and children, walk about the streets with lighted tapers in their hands, and pursue each other in order to extinguish them. Every equipage must also be illuminated, otherwise it might be broken by the populace. The same customs were observed in ancient Rome during the festival of Ceres seeking for her daughter Proserpine.

Police. It might be naturally imagined that the police are careless or useless in a capital, where government, instead of punishing, negociates with bandits; it must be admitted, however, that there are few towns where the police are more efficient or better regulated than at Rome; no disturbances on the streets, none of the petty larcenies so common in great towns; it seldom or never happens that handkerchiefs and watches are stolen. It cannot be denied that stilettos are sometimes used, but it is from jealousy, not from avarice or desire of gain. The streets of Rome are not sullied by the degraded beings, tolerated in other towns as a necessary leprosy, and whose sight serves to tempt the wicked, and to offend the virtuous. Public women are banished without any scruple, or at all events they can never be distinguished by indecent effrontery. It may be

mentioned, to the honour of the papal government, that it has done much to suppress licentiousness and immorality by encouraging marriages. Marriage licences, says an author, are granted with as much facility as passports, and as soon as these licenses are presented, the curates must read the marriage ceremony, and pronounce the nuptial benediction. He who seduces a young woman, is obliged to marry her, or to pass five years of his life at the gallies.

Monopolies.

The church condemns usury, but it permits the cardinals to enjoy the most unjust monopolies. They only are permitted to sell the necessaries of life,—oil, groceries, corn, flour, and bread. The grocers and bakers are mere agents, or if any wish to exercise their industry on their own account, they are exposed to vexatious oppression. Besides, government regulates the price of bread for the nominal and ostensible reason that the people may not pay too dear for it, but if any baker attempts to sell it under the regulated price, he may be liable to a severe penalty. Most governments are now aware of the bad effects of lotteries; at Rome, however, that iniquitous tax is not only levied on an ignorant and wretched people, but sanctioned by the ministers of religion, for the tickets are drawn in the presence of clergymen, bishops, and cardinals; children turn the wheel, but before they do so, they make the sign of the cross. Although lotteries are permitted by the church, the same church prohibits games of chance.

At Paris, *gensdarmes* guard the theatres, and are stationed in the public places during festivals; at Rome, government goes further; while the follies of the Carnival last, and while the theatres are opened, an executioner walks gravely near his *cavaletto*, an instrument of punishment, destined for those whose turbulent mirth passes the prescribed rules on festive days, or for the critics who venture to condemn or interrupt a theatrical representation. The cavaletto consists of two boards joined to each other, and forming two inclined planes; it is supported on four wooden feet, and the two in front are higher than the others. Delinquents are placed horizontally, and bound to it, so as to prevent their escape, while the executioner inflicts a certain number of lashes. Vintners must submit to the same punishment, if animal food, or any dishes that are not permitted, appear on their tables during lent.

Strappado.

The strappado is an instrument of punishment for greater offences; the hands of the criminal are tied behind his back, he is raised into the air by means of a rope, and allowed to fall suddenly to the ground.

Punishment of death.

The assassin is punished by death, but not until he has remained several days in a dungeon, the victim of suspense, and ignorant of his sentence; he is then compelled to listen to the exhortations of a priest, to confess and to communicate. Three days after these ceremonies have taken place, the criminal may be executed; but if he refuses the consolations of religion, he is beset by all the monks and priests belonging to the different congregations, until he confess; and if he persists in his refusal, he cannot be punished without an order from the pope. The torture has been abolished, and the Italian or national language substituted for the Latin in the civil and ecclesiastal courts, during the pontificate of Leo the Twelfth.

Government.

The government of the Roman states consists of cardinals who fill certain offices, and laymen to whom different places in the magistracy and army are committed. One cardinal performs the duties of *Camerlingo*, or minister of finance; he presides in the Apostolic chamber, —the council entrusted with the revenue of the state. Another or the secretary of state corresponds with the nuncios and legates; his office is similar to that of minister for foreign affairs in other governments. The *Ditario* is entrusted with the nomination to vacant benefices, with dispen-

sations and annats. The vicar, besides his episcopal functions, may be considered in Rome, minister of the police; he watches over the inhabitants, punishes transgressors, and enforces the laws against the Jews. The office of the chancellor is sufficiently indicated by its title. The auditor administers justice, decides intricate lawsuits, and examines those that are appointed to dioceses. The secretary of accounts manages whatever appertains to the public expenditure. Different assemblies of cardinals are called consistories or congregations; the members of consistories deliberate concerning the nomination of nuncios, legates, and bishops. The members of congregations pass sentence on murderers, who claim the right of asylum or impunity after having taken refuge in a church; they examine the complaints of the people against their governors, the claims of those who solicit titles of nobility, and other questions of a like nature. The congregation of rites regulates the ceremonies of the church, and confers after the usual forms the honours of canonization. The chief of these congregations is the Inquisition or *Santo-Offizio*, which the *Index* or the council of censors assist. A number of cardinals form the *Segnatura di Giustizia*, a court that reviews the decisions of the inferior judges. The pope presides in the *Segnatura di Grazia*, his holiness and several cardinals examine the petitions of supplicants, and the cases in which the royal prerogative of mercy may be extended with advantage. The Rota, a tribunal composed of lay judges, takes cognizance of civil cases in the first instance; the administration of justice, and criminal cases fall within the department of the governor of Rome. Two *Consulta* or courts of appeal are established in the Roman states, the one in the capital, the other at Bologna. The senator and his four lieutenants form also another lay tribunal, and the conservatori are magistrates entrusted with whatever concerns the interests of the town; they regulate the distribution of the taxes in the chief town of every district.

Religion. Superstition prevails not only at Rome, but in all the states of the Church. The inhabitants observe scrupulously all the ceremonies of religion, omitting nothing connected with form or etiquette, although apparently destitute of true devotion. The confession is a practice which all follow, more from custom than christian humility, rather to lull the conscience than to correct vice. A lady meets a lover in a church, they may be alone, and it often happens that the churches are deserted, but she never speaks or even looks at him, until he has counted all the beads in his chaplet. The people kneel and receive the benedictions of the pope; it is not at Rome, however, that the chief of the church is thought to participate in the divine power; what he gains in temporal, he loses in spiritual authority.

Certificates of communion. As soon as Easter is over, the curates demand from their parishioners certificates of communion, and if any do not present them, their names are added to the lists of the excommunicated. Although the subjects of the papal government must observe the ceremonies of devotion, strangers enjoy the utmost freedom; no processes are raised against foreigners, who do not deck their houses with tapestry on *Corpus Christi* day, and it is not necessary that they should take off their hats, if they see a cross or the viaticum on the streets. Lastly, whatever a man's religious belief may be, he may be assured of having his body transported to the church after death; and provided payment be made, of being interred with all the honours and pomp used by the Romish communion.

Sigisbei. It is needless to make any remarks on the *sigisbei* or *cavalieri serventi*; they are as common in Rome as in the other large towns; during the residence of the French, these lovers were rendered ridiculous, and intrigues were substituted for the contracts which good natured husbands made with the gentlemen that their ladies loved. Foreigners who have lately returned from Rome, admit that the ancient custom is again becoming fashionable, a natural consequence in a country where the

beneficial effects of education are unknown, where it does not tend to improve the morals.

A government, wholly pacific like that of Rome, might console itself for its political nullity, by encouraging and protecting letters, sciences, and arts, but an intellectual deadness seems to pervade the Roman states. The sciences are less cultivated than in the rest of Italy, and the town which contains inexhaustible treasures for the archaiologist, possesses no antiquarian worthy of being compared with many in Germany or France. The literary *academias* in Rome, are more obscure than other societies of the same sort in the French provinces. The stage cannot flourish in a town where the tragedies of Alfieri are not permitted to be acted, where the theatres are only open a few days before and after Carnival, and although prelates appear at theatrical representations, it would be much better to prohibit such amusements, than to sanction a criminal mutilation in the holy city, by substituting *castrati* for singing women. No name worthy the age of Italian painting exists at present in the Roman school, and were it not for the ancient *chefs-d'œuvres* in which Rome abounds, the French academy of fine arts might as well be established in any other town. Mosaic painting is the only art in which the Romans excel. | Arts and sciences.

The people in the upper classes are as indolent and ill-informed, as the present Venetian nobles; the reading of the young people is mostly confined to the romances of Voltaire; and the girls, in order to make up for the time lost in a convent, read frivolous and dangerous works. The lower orders in the town can read and write; but such knowledge is by no means common in the rural districts. | Education.

Enough has been already said concerning the manners and customs of the inhabitants in the capital of the Roman states, some remarks may now be made on the most remarkable ancient and modern monuments that are contained in the same place. Rome stands in the middle of a large plain, which extends from the Appenines to the sea; that plain was formerly fertile, it is now comparatively sterile. He who enters the town can hardly believe himself in the former capital of the Roman empire, so different is papal from imperial Rome, of which some scattered monuments are still remaining, notwithstanding the ravages of time; barbarians and Christians attest the past existence. The modern soil is much higher than the ancient; the Tarpeian rock does not exceed, at present, twenty-five or thirty feet in height, and the pavement of a small church, built at the base of the Palatine hill, is exactly on a level with the dome of an ancient temple, erected on the spot where Romulus and Remus were supposed to have been suckled by a wolf. It was necessary to remove the soil to the depth of twenty feet, in order to discover the base of Trajan's pillar. More than half the pedestal of the triumphal arch of Constantine was covered with earth, which was also removed before a correct judgment could be formed of a monument that has suffered little from the effects of time; and although raised in a period when art was on the decline, is, nevertheless, most interesting to the antiquary. The fine Egyptian obelisk loaded with hieroglyphics, and cut by order of Ramses, thirteen centuries before the Christian era, was covered with sixteen feet of earth, amidst the ruins of the great circus, before it was transported, in the time of Sixtus the Fifth, to the square of St. John of Lateran. The soil reached to more than half the height of the principal gate in the arch of Septimius Severus. Many monuments that still remain of ancient Rome, were cleared by the French government, which did more in a few years than the most of the popes, to restore them to the admiration of modern artists.

The Pantheon, a temple erected by Agrippa to all the gods, is perhaps the finest monument of ancient Rome, and certainly the one in the best state of preservation. The round arch is equal in height | Pantheon.

to its diameter, as if the architect had wished to imitate the rotundity of the celestial sphere. The interior of the edifice is a hundred and thirty-seven feet in diameter, and the light passes into it by an opening eighty feet in circumference. Adorned with a magnificent portico, composed of sixteen granite columns, and crowned with a pediment supported on eight columns, it was easily changed into a church. The tombs of Raphael and Annibal Caracci, the busts of Palladio, Winkelmann, and Nicolas Poussin, are now seen instead of the heathen gods, that were formerly stationed in the Pantheon. The Rotondo is the modern name of the edifice, and the stranger ascends by steps to the circular opening in the roof. The dome was covered with bronze, in the time of the Roman power; Constans the Second was the first who took part of it away, and sent it to Syracuse; the rest was employed in constructing the famous *Baldacchino* of S. Peter's, and in making the cannon which defend, at present, the castle of St. Angelo.

Coliseum. The amphitheatre of Flavian, which has been called the Colosseum, or Coliseum, from its gigantic proportions, is not in so good a state of preservation as the Pantheon, because it was impossible to change it into a church; but the people have some respect for the building, since Pius the Sixth erected a large cross in the middle of the arena, and fifteen altars to the memory of the martyrs, who are supposed to have perished within the enclosure. Twelve thousand Jews, whom Vespasian made captives, and brought to Rome, after the taking of Jerusalem, commenced the edifice, which cost at first a sum equal to 2,083,500*l.*; it was afterwards finished by Titus. The outer part of the building exceeds fourteen hundred feet in circumference; the interior is five hundred and eighty feet in length, and four hundred and eighty in breadth. It was supposed that it could contain 80,000 spectators, but from calculations which appear to be more accurate, the number has been reduced to forty-four thousand.[b] When Titus opened the amphitheatre for the first time, the stage was crowded with an incredible number of wild animals of every sort; foxes, lions, tigers, elephants, stags, and gazelles; more than five thousand were destroyed in a single day. The arena was sometimes changed into a lake twenty feet deep, the water flowed through eighty openings, and the people beheld the spetacle of a naval combat.

It is customary to visit the Vatican, when illumined with torches, and the Coliseum by moon-light; and certainly, the pale light of the moon heightens greatly the effect of the vast amphitheatre; the imagination may conceive the ghosts of gladiators issuing from the vomitories, or the shades of captives, that perished before a people accustomed to barbarous spectacles.

Vatican. The Vatican, which is contigious to the church of St. Peter, is supposed to be built on the site of Nero's palace; it consists of several edifices, that occupy a much greater surface than both the Tuileries and the Louvre. The interior is divided into twenty courts, as many porticos, eight large, two hundred smaller stair-cases, and twelve hundred apartments. The great staircase, which leads to the gallery of antiques, served as a model for the one in the Louvre, to which most judges give the preference. The chapel of the Vatican, or the famous Sixtine chapel, is richly decorated, and its finest ornament is the celebrated painting of the last judgment, in fresco, by Michael Angelo. The library contains seventy thousand volumes, and forty thousand manuscripts. In the same palace are seen the school of Athens, and the other fresco paintings of Raphael. A small building which communicates with the Vatican, and commands a fine view of Rome, and the neighbouring country as far as the Appenines, has on that account been called *Belvedere*. In the same building, and in a much better situation than the Louvre, is placed the statue

[b] Simond's Travels in Italy.

of the Apollo, the *chef-d'œuvre* of ancient sculpture; the Laocoon, the Torso, and the Antinous are seen in adjoining apartments.

The Vatican is the residence of the pope in winter, and the Quirinal palace in summer. Although the form of the edifice may be irregular, it has been much admired for the magnificence of the interior, the fine view from it, and the beauty of the gardens. It was reserved, under the French imperial government, for the young prince, who received the title of king of Rome. The palace derives its name from the Quirinal hill, on the summit of which it stands. It has been called *Monte-Cavallo*, because, in front of it are two groups of marble statues, each representing a horse of colossal proportions, and a youth seventeen feet in height, who appears to subdue it. The two groups are ancient; but they are not the works of Phideas and Praxiteles, as might be inferred from their names on the pedestals. An Egyptian obelisk of red porphyry rises between them, and a fountain, which discharges its waters into a basin of oriental granite, seventy-six feet in circumference, adorns the centre of the court. | Quirinal palace.

Modern Rome has also its capitol, but it is no longer the capitol which the masters of the world ascended to return thanks to Jupiter the Thunderer, whose temple commanded the town; near it rose the *Tabularium*, an edifice devoted to sacred and profane purposes,—the repository of the decrees of Rome, recorded on tables of brass. The modern capitol is an insignificant hill, and the buildings on it are the residences of the municipal magistrates. A single flight of steps, planned by Michael Angelo, leads to the top of the hill, styled by corruption the *Campidoglio*. Two antique lions of basalt guard the foot of the stairs, and two naked colossi the top; the latter were dug out of the banks of the Tiber, two hundred and fifty years ago. Each holds a prancing horse, colossal too, and yet scarcely reaching to the waist of its gigantic master. These figures, which are but of indifferent workmanship, have been styled Castor and Pollux. On a line with them are two mutilated trophies, two statues of the sons of Constantine, and lastly, at the extremities of the balustrade, two miliary boundaries; the stone, No. I., on the Appian way, was formerly placed at the end of the first mile, but it stands now at the beginning.* The square or *piazza*, to which the stair leads, is regularly built on three sides; the palace of the senator occupies the front, that of the *Conservatori* the right side, and the museum of antiquities the left. These buildings are also the work of Michael Angelo; and by his direction the bronze statue of Marcus Aurelius was placed in the middle of the square,—the finest ancient equestrian statue in existence, and the only one that has been found at Rome. | Capitol.

The senatorial tower in front of the capitol, commands a vast space, covered with ruins, now the *Campo Vaccino*, or cow market, formerly the *Forum Romanum*. "From this elevated station, about two hundred feet above the Forum," says M. Simond, "the eloquent voice of Cicero might have been heard, revealing to his assembled countrymen the conspiracies of a Cataline. He might even have been heard in the tribune of Harangues, situated on the other side of the Forum, and next to the Temple of Jupiter Stator, taking the oath that he had saved the country, and all the people repeating the same oath after him. But the gory head and hand of this saviour of his country might have been seen from the same station, soon after, nailed to the side of the same tribune and the same people tamely looking on! Instead of contending crowds of patriots, conspirators, orators, heroes, and fools, each acting his part, I only saw a few cows, quietly picking up blades of grass among the ruins; beggars and monks, and asses loaded with bags of puzzolana, and a gang of galley slaves, lazily digging for

* Simond's Travels in Italy.

antiquities, under the lash of a task master."[4] The gulf of Curtius may recall the patriotic devotion of a Roman general, but it does not deserve at present the name of a pond.

The Antonnine column, surmounted with a statue of St. Paul, rises near the *Monte-Citorio*. The tomb of Adrian, on the banks of the Tiber, has become the castle of St. Angelo. The bridge which leads to it, and which bears the same name, was the ancient Ælian bridge, built by Adrian; the two statues at the entrance are those of St. Peter and St. Paul, the others represent angels.

Church of St. Peter. | We may leave these ancient monuments disfigured by bad taste and religious zeal, and direct our steps to the master work of modern Rome, the largest Christian temple in the world. One fault to the church of St. Peter may be mentioned,—the principle front, instead of resembling that of a temple, looks more like the front of a showy palace. The dimensions of the buildings are so great that the magnificent cupola does not seem to form any part of it, but appears like the dome of another edifice. The court of St. Peter, not less remarkable than the church, is surrounded by two semicircular porticos, which enclose a space that extends to the front of the building, and forms two *piazzas*, of which the total length exceeds a thousand feet. The portico is surmounted by ninety-two statues of the saints, about nine or ten feet in height; the proportions of the portal accord so well with the objects which surround it, that its great size is not at first obvious, neither do the pillars appear very large, although they are more than eight feet three inches in diameter. The dimensions of the front are equal to three hundred and sixty-six feet; the entrances to the church are five doors, under a portico four hundred and forty-eight feet long, and thirty-nine broad. The extremities of the portico form two vestibules, in one of which may be seen the equestrian statue of Constantine, in the other that of Charlemagne, both of whom Rome considers its benefactors.

The form of St. Peter's is that of the Latin cross; those who enter it for the first time, are less struck with the size of the building than the profusion of mosaics and marbles; the length, however, is equal to five hundred and sixty-five, and the height of a hundred and thirty-six feet. The ornaments are so splendid as to be dazzling, they are arranged with more ostentation than taste. It might also be urged that the light is too great; were it less vivid it might be more in unison with the purpose of the building, or more inviting to retirement and devotion; it might also harmonize better with a finely painted window at the upper end of the nave. The principal chapels are adorned with mosaics after the models of the great masters. An antique *Giove Capitolino* in bronze, was melted to supply materials for a colossal figure of St. Peter, a figure of barbarous workmanship, which has been placed in a recess. The statue is always surrounded by devout persons, who kiss with great fervour a projecting toe of the apostle, and the metal has been actually worn off a full inch, by the kisses of three hundred years.

Baldacchino. | The Baldacchino or famous canopy of bronze which surmounts the high altar may give the stranger an idea of the dimensions of the building. It is nearly ninety feet high, exceeding the height of all the palaces in Rome except one; indeed the colonnade of the Louvre at Paris is somewhat lower than the canopy, which in appearance seems a mere piece of furniture that might be pushed into a corner without being missed.[5] The bronze used in constructing it, weighed one thousand six hundred and sixty-six hundred weights, and the gilding cost more than 10,000*l*. It stands below the cupola, the most remarkable part of the building. The height of the cupola amounts to four hundred and fifty feet, and

[4] Simond's Travels in Italy. [5] Ibid.

the inner diameter to a hundred and thirty. The twelve apostles are represented in mosaics, and separated by groups of angels bearing the instruments of the passion. Care has been taken in the two most apparent parts of the church, to connect it with the memory of the saint to whom it is consecrated. Thus, it is affirmed that the gilded balustrade placed before the high altar, covers the tomb and the body of St. Peter, situated beneath it, in a subterranean church more ancient than the Basilica. The upper end of the nave is decorated with a splendid monument,—the pulpit of St. Peter, supported by four colossal figures of St. Ambrose, St. Augustin, St. Athanasius and St. Chrysostom. According to tradition, St. Peter used to sit in the arm-chair now placed in the pulpit; it is made of wood, and inlaid with gold and silver. The building was commenced in the year 1450, and finished in 1606. The sum expended on it, was equivalent to 10,291,700*L*.

Ancient churches.

No other church in Rome can be compared with St. Peter's; many, however, are remarkable for their ornaments or antiquity. The Romans consider San Giovanni in Fonte, not only the most ancient in Rome, but in Christendom; it has also been designated the *Baptistery of Constantine*, but the emperor was not baptized there, although it is not improbable that he enriched it. To give a detailed account of the other churches in the capital of the Christian world, would be a tedious and unnecessary task; suffice it to say that the number exceeds three hundred.

Palaces.

But the number of palaces is still greater; the architecture has for the most part the character of solidity rather than of elegance; Vasi enumerates more than sixty-five that are worthy of being visited. There are few of them in which the emblems of poverty are not contrasted with the trappings of pride. Strangers admire fine paintings of the Italian school, in a sumptuous hall with broken windows. "A massy gate," says M. Simond, "opens into the body of a palace, which is not situated in a court; the court, on the contrary, being placed within the palace, enclosing it on all sides. The stairs generally are near the gate, or under an open portico in the court, so that visitors may always alight under cover. The entrance being generally left open, it becomes in consequence a common receptacle for filth. I have heard it suggested," adds M. Simond, "that there may be something of the *Grandioso* in the squalid court of a Roman palace; an odd idea, but not perhaps wholly groundless. The noble proprietor occupies but a small part of the edifice, the rest being intended not for private comfort, but for the display of wealth and grandeur, to be enjoyed by an admiring multitude at all hours, and in their own way, which is neither very refined, nor very cleanly."

Neighbourhood of Rome.

The country near Rome abounds with the remains of antiquity. Near the gate of St. Paul, the pyramid or tomb of Sextus announces the wealth of that ancient Roman by its size, by the paintings and ornaments of the interior. At no great distance from it are the catacombs, the burying place of unnumbered bodies, the grotto and the fountain where Numa used to meet the nymph Egeria. It was to Tusculum that Cicero, Cæsar and Crassus fled from the noise and political intrigues of ancient Rome. Frascati rises near its ruins. Another Horace might write a satire on Tivoli and its dirty streets rather than compose songs in their praise. The Roman poet could no longer recognise the Tiber which afforded him such delight, but he might discover the remains of two small temples, the one dedicated to Vesta, the other to the Sibyl; he might admire the situation of the town, and its celebrated cascades, still worthy of his verses. A house near Velebri, the ancient *Velitræ*, a town founded by the Volsci, was sometimes the country residence of Augustus.

Pontine marshes.

The Pontine marshes (*pomptina palus*,) are now more dangerous by their exhalations than in ancient times. The work of Appius Claudius, or the Appian Way, which traversed them, was the first

undertaking by which that part of the country was improved. They were imperfectly drained by Augustus; Trajan erected bridges and houses, other individuals followed his example, and the houses were inhabited in summer by the wealthy Romans. The causes which rendered the Maremma unhealthy, produced the same effects on the Pontine marshes. The country having been depopulated by barbarians, the waters remaining without an outlet, unwholesome miasms are diffused in the atmosphere. Those who sleep in the open air, on the banks of the marshes during the heat of summer; seldom or never awake. Several popes have attempted to drain them, and the last attempts were not wholly useless; but to arrive at satisfactory results, requires a government possessing more resources and energy than that of Rome. The yellow complexions and swollen legs of the inhabitants proclaim the nature of the country; it has been said that the people are never free from fever, but it may be affirmed, without exaggeration, that they are subject to it several months in the year. The lower animals do not seem to suffer from the insalubrity of the air; the stags, wild boars, and buffaloes, are numerous and strong.

Ostia. | Ostia, a town founded by Ancus Martius, the fourth king of Rome, became an important place, during the empire, from its port at the mouth of the Tiber; its trade, now insignificant, consists in salt. The insalubrity of the Pontine marshes extends to Ostia, and the cardinal who is bishop of it, takes care to reside at Rome. Civita Vecchia, a well built town, and the only commercial port which the pope possesses on the Mediterranean, is not so unwholesome as Ostia. The agreeable town of Viterbo is situated to the east of Civita Vecchia; several popes are interred in its cathedral. Orvietto, on the banks of the Paglia, stands on a steep rock; there is a pit near it, to which mules descend and return by inclined planes; it is lighted by a hundred small windows. A number of fine basaltic columns are situated in the neighbourhood.

Spoletto. | Spoletto, on the road that leads to Foligno, contains several remains of antiquity, among others, the ruins of a theatre, and different ancient temples; its old walls and towers were perhaps erected by Narses, who drove the Goths from the town. A fine aqueduct, five hundred feet in height, and of Gothic architecture, was probably the work of Theodoric. The industrious inhabitants in the small town of Foligno, carry on a trade in paper, wax-lights, and comfits.

Perugia. | Perugia near the Tiber, was an ancient Etruscan city, and an important place long before Rome; it resisted all the power of Hannibal. Placed on the summit of a hill, water is conveyed into it from Monte-Pacciano, by pipes which descend into a valley, and then ascend to the height of four hundred feet. Perugia was the birth-place of Perugino, a distinguished painter, who claims the honour of being the master of Raphael. The view from its ramparts extends over a rich and varied surface. At the distance of three leagues are seen aqueducts, temples, and walls, they are the walls of Assissi, the native town of St. Francis, whose remains are still visited by numerous pilgrims.

Bologna. | We may arrive at Bologna by following the windings in the Appenine chain; it is the second city in the states of the church, and the one, after Rome, that possesses the most valuable collections. The concordate of 1515 was signed within its walls, by which Francis the First reserved to himself the nomination to the principal benefices, and made over to the pope the first year of their revenue. A great many churches are contained in the town, there are besides two old towers, more sloping than the one at Pisa, which threaten destruction to the neighbouring houses. The university, the museum of natural history and antiquities, that are contained in twenty-six apartments, the library, consisting of two hundred thousand volumes and many manuscripts, the observatory, worthy of being visited, on account of its meridian line, the botanical garden, in which

numerous exotic plants have been collected, and two scientific academies, render Bologna little inferior to the most celebrated towns in Italy.

Ferrara, a place of less importance than Bologna, is the most northern town in the states of the church. The streets are large and broad, one of them is equal to two thousand yards in length. The most remarkable edifice or the Gothic palace, was once the residence of the dukes of Ferrara. Other monuments are connected with the illustrious house of Este. The ashes of Ariosto rest in the Lyceum, and in the hospital of St. Anne, may be seen the place where, (under the pretext of madness,) Tasso was seven years confined by Alphonso, duke of Ferrara. | Ferrara.

Marine deposites have been gradually heaped on the harbour, which Augustus constructed at Ravenna; the town is at present two leagues distant from the sea. The Rotonda, a curious church, was constructed in order that the sarcophagus of Theodoric might be placed in it; that monument was destroyed in 1512 by the French; but the tomb of Dante, near the cloister of the Franciscans, was decorated about forty years ago by the cardinal Gonzaga. Faenza has given its name to the glazed earthenware, which the French call *faience;* it was the birthplace of the celebrated Toricelli. Forli need only be mentioned for its cathedral and regular streets. The town of Rimini, built on the shores of the sea, was the place where the Flaminian and Emilian roads terminated; it contains several ancient remains, among others a fine triumphal arch erected to Augustus, and the bridge commenced by the same emperor, and finished by Tiberius. The church of San Francisco, finished in 1450, was one of the first buildings, in which the Roman was substituted for the Gothic architecture. | Ravenna.

The small town of Urbino boasts of having given birth to Raphael. Ancona is seen to most advantage from the sea; it stands on the side of a hill, the citadel rises at one extremity, and the cathedral on the other. The harbour is built in the form of a semicircle; the mole, which extends into the sea, is sixty-eight feet in height and two thousand in length; the streets are, for the most part, narrow and crooked. A triumphal arch was erected to Trajan, and at a later period, another to Benedict the Fourteenth, by whom the mole and the lazaretto were constructed. | Ancona.

Many who visit Ancona, are induced to extend their journey to Loretto, a small town, on a hill that commands the sea. It rose into celebrity from its statue of the virgin, formerly an object of so great veneration, that, before the reformation, two hundred thousand pilgrims came to it every year, and deposited their offerings at the feet of the image. Loretto deserves a place in the history of superstition. According to tradition, in the year 1291, angels carried away the house of the holy virgin at Nazareth, and placed it near Tersato, in Dalmatia; three years afterwards, the same angels transported the same house to the coasts of Italy, a thousand paces from the sea, in the neighbourhood of Recanati. Eight months afterwards, the house, which was solid, stationed itself a thousand paces nearer the town; it removed next to the lands of a noble lady, called Lauretta, where Loretto has been since built. The house, still admired by the people, is thirty-two feet in length, thirteen in breadth, and eighteen in height; many imagine it to be without any foundation, and that it rests on the ground. It was formerly a mere brick building, it is now decorated and incrusted with Carrara marble. The cedar-wood statue of the virgin stands above the chimney, in the eastern wall; the garments with which the priests clothe the statue, are kept in a chest; one of them, or a red camlet gown, was worn by Mary herself. The earthen vessels which the holy family used, are deposited in another chest; the window opposite the chimney was the one by which the angel Gabriel entered. The house, which the inhabitants call the *casa santa*, stands | Loretto.

in the middle of a church, enriched with more costly relics than any other in the world.

Not more than four towns of any importance are situated between Loretto and the Neapolitan frontiers; Macerata, rising on a hill, above a fruitful plain, Fermo, with a harbour, much frequented by small vessels, Camerino, with an archiepiscopal palace, a university, and silk manufactories, lastly, Ascoli, the ancient Asculum, and the metropolis of a diocese.

The popes possess, besides, two small territories in the kingdom of Naples. Ponte Corvo, on the banks of the Carigliano, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, is the chief town of the one, and the seat of a diocese. Benevento, the metropolis of an archbishopric, contains several fine buildings, and the *Porto Aurea*, or marble triumphal arch, raised in honour of Trajan. The first diocese is enclosed by the Terra di Lavoro, and the last by the Principato Ulteriore.

BOOK CXXXVI.

EUROPE.

Description of Italy.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

Ancient inhabitants.

About sixteen centuries before the vulgar era, different tribes left the Illyrian mountains, and migrated to the country between the Alps and the Adige; but abandoning that marshy soil, fatal to man, and difficult of culture, they settled in the region that extends from the Chiento to the extremity of Calabria.

Origin of their names.

Many of them were, Liburni, a nation sprung from the *Pædiculi*, the *Apuli*, and the *Marucini*, ancient tribes, of which, the names have given rise to considerable research. Court-de-Gebelin supposes that the Marucini, on the banks of the Pescara, were so called from the words *Mar* and *Ru*, the former signifying a stream, and the other high or lofty. The Frentani, it has been affirmed, derived their name from the word *ren* to *flow*, because their country was watered by several rivers, which descended into the Adriatic, but it appears more probable, that they were so denominated, from one of these rivers, the ancient *Fronto*, or the present Termoli; in like manner, the names of different tribes in North America were found to be the same as those of rivers or mountains. According to some writers, the name of *Calabri* was a derivative from the eastern word *calab*, which signifies resin, and indicates that the country was, in ancient times, covered with pines. The territory to the west of these regions, towards the gulf of Tarentum, was called *Messapia* or *Japygia*. Mazocchi makes a curious remark on the subject, namely, that the eastern word *massap* means wind, and the Hebrew word *Japah* signifies *it blew*, thus the roots from which the two ancient names have been derived, indicate, even in the present day, the nature of the country. The lands in the Appenines, round the lake Fucigno, which occupies part of a lofty basin, were inhabited by the Marsi; their name, says Court-de-Gebelin, comes from *Mar*, a height, and *ci*, water. They were the neighbours of the *Peligni*. The *Marsi*, *Peligni*, *Marucini*, and *Frentani*, were not a numerous, but a warlike people; they resisted, for a long time, the power of Rome.[a]

[a] Strabo, Book V. Chapter 9.

Samnium, the country of the Samnites, lay on the heights and sides of the Appenines, towards the south of the territory inhabited by the Marsi. The Greek geographer considers the Samnites the descendants of the Sabini; Court-de-Gebelin and La Martiniere arrive at the same conclusion from the etymology of their name; they might have been first called *Sabinites*, then *Sannites*, and lastly, *Samnites*. The cause of their separation from the Sabini does not appear improbable, Strabo mentions the tradition. According to the custom of the most remote antiquity, the Sabini, (being engaged in a war with the Ombri, their neighbours,) vowed to consecrate to the gods whatever was produced within their territory in the course of the year. Their efforts were crowned with success, the animals and the crops were offered as a sacrifice to the gods, and a famine was the natural consequence. One of the people remarked, that in order to fulfil their vow, the children born during the year should also be included in the offering; these were accordingly consecrated to the god Mars. When arrived at the age of manhood, being compelled to expatriate themselves, they followed the chain of the Appenines, and settled at twenty leagues distant from their native land. They became a warlike and numerous people, being able to put eighty thousand foot soldiers and eight thousand horsemen under arms. Long the rivals of the Romans, they were not wholly subdued, until the dictator Sylla was inhuman enough to massacre in the plain of Mars, the prisoners who had been induced to surrender themselves by the conditions which he himself had proposed.

Samnium.

"I may mention," says Strabo, "an excellent law of the Samnites, one well adapted to excite men to virtue. Fathers have not the right of choosing husbands for their daughters; but judges name twenty young persons, ten of each sex, whom they consider more meritorious than the rest; the most deserving virgin becomes the wife of the most deserving young man, the next is given to the next, and so on until they are all married. But if a husband who has received a prize, changes his mode of life, or from being virtuous, becomes wicked, he is rendered infamous, and his wife is taken from him."[b]

Campania, a country to the east of Samnium, was well known in ancient times for its fertility and diversified scenery; in the same region was situated Capua, of which, the luxury was as fatal to the troops of Hannibal, as the plains of Cannæ had been to the Roman legions. The hills of Falernum, beyond it, were covered with vineyards, while the neighbourhood of Baia and Pozzuoli was adorned with the country houses in which degenerate Romans indulged in effeminacy and luxury.

Campania.

"Vesuvius," says Strabo, "rises above these places,—a high mountain, but, with the exception of its summit, the soil is very fruitful. The summit, however, is sterile, and in appearance not unlike a heap of ashes. It may be inferred from the cavities in iron coloured rocks, as if they had been calcined by fire, that the mountain was formerly *a volcano, containing fiery furnaces*, which were extinguished, when the materials or aliment that supplied them, were exhausted."[c] It is not a little remarkable to hear the Greek geographer speak of Vesuvius, nearly in the same terms that a person of the present day might apply to the extinguished volcanoes in Auvergne. The fruitfulness of Campania induced different people to settle in it at different periods; it was inhabited by the *Opici* and the *Ausones*, before it was conquered by the *Osci*, who were expelled by the *Cymei*, a Greek tribe that migrated from Eolia, twelve centuries before the vulgar era. After having built twelve towns, of which, Capua was the capital, the Osci were vanquished by the Samnites, whom the Romans subdued and enslaved.

Vesuvius, in the time of Strabo.

[b] Strabo, Book V. chap. 16, sect. 2. [c] Ibid. chap. 10.

Lucania. Lucania extended to the south-west of Campania, from the bay of Salerno to that of Tarento. The Lucani, who inhabited the country, were a colony of the Samnites. Justin, after Trogus Pompeius, gives the following account of them. "As soon as the young men among the Lucani arrive at the age of puberty, they are put out of the town, and sent to the woods among the shepherds; there without assistance, without clothing, and without beds, they are early accustomed to a laborious and frugal life; they have no other food than what they kill in the chase, no other drink than the water from the stream. Thus they are inured in youth, to whatever is most irksome and painful in the life of a soldier." At the time of their settling in the country, the coasts of western Italy, as well as Sicily, were peopled with Greek colonists, and their territory received the name of *Great Greece*. The neighbours of the Lucani made war against the latest settlers; it was always their policy to oppose their invasions on the maritime districts.

Sybaris. It was therefore found necessary to destroy the *Sybaris* situated at the mouth of the Sybaris, now the Cosale. The town appears to have been of eastern origin, at least Mentelle derives its name from the word *Sheber*, which, in Hebrew, signifies plenty. It is remarkable, that when the Sybarites rebuilt the same place, its Greek name, at first, *Thurion*, then changed by the Latins into *Thurium*, and afterwards into *Copia*, by the Romans, retained always the same signification. *Thor*, in Chaldean signifies an ox, the emblem of agriculture; and Copia conveys the same idea of abundance. The country of the Sybarites was rich and populous, it contained not fewer than twenty-five towns; and an army of thirty thousand men could be raised in the event of a war. But the wealth and effeminacy of the inhabitants were the causes of their ruin.

Brutii. The territory of Calabria was called *Bretium* or *Brutium* by the ancients. According to Strabo, the *Bretii* or *Brutii* who inhabited it, migrated from Lucania, but Court-de-Gebelin considers the tradition doubtful, because the name of Bretium comes from the Celtic word *Bret*, a forest. The Syrian word *Bruta* signifies a resinous tree, Brutium might therefore denote a country abounding with pines. It has been already shown, that the root of the word Calabria signifies resin, hence, it follows from these remarks, that the names corresponded with the productions of the soil, in different parts of southern Italy.

Sicily. Sicily was first inhabited by the *Sicani*, a people of *Basque* or *Iberian* origin; by them the country was called *Sicania*. Conquered by the *Siculi* or *Sicili*, a Dalmatian people, settled in Latium, the island received the name *Sicilia* from its new masters. The ancient kings of Sicily were denominated *tyrants*, they are known in history by their despotism and their invasions on the coasts of Italy. After the death of Dionysius, one of these princes, the island was at different times subdued by the Greeks, the Carthaginians, the *Mamertini*, who were a tribe of the Brutii, and, lastly, by the Romans.

The four provinces which compose what is now called the kingdom of the two Sicilies, were devastated by the Ostrogoths after the fall of the empire. Narses subdued them in the year 553, and compelled the inhabitants to submit to the emperor at Constantinople. Thirty years afterwards, Autharis, king of Lombardy, took possession of the provinces, and founded the dutchy of Benevento; Naples, Salerno, Capua, and Tarento, were within the dominion of its dukes.

Puglia and Calabria continued subject to the Greek emperors. In the eleventh century, some Norman gentlemen, returning from a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, (at that time pilgrims carried arms along with them,) remained some time at Salerno. While they resided at the court of the Lombard prince Guymar, the Saracens, then masters of Sicily, invaded the port, and exacted contribution from the prince and the inhabitants.

The Normans, although much inferior in number, would not suffer infidels to plunder the town, without resistance; their courage supplied them with strength, and few Saracens returned to Sicily. The people, grateful to their liberators, loaded them with presents; and after their return to Normandy, their success prompted many of their countrymen to seek wealth and fortune in Italy.

Aversa ceded to the Normans.

An army was raised under the command of Ranulph, a chief, who rendered important services to the Greek and Lombard princes, and obtained permission from them to fortify and settle in Aversa, between Naples and Capua. Ranulph's successors were surpassed in their exploits, by the achievements of the sons of Tancred. Their alliance was courted by the princes of Great Greece; but the covetousness of the latter occasioned dissentions between them and the Ultramontanes. Manasses, general of the Greek troops, led an army into Sicily, but that army could not vanquish without the French, who gave signal proofs of their valour; whilst they were pursuing the Saracens in their mountains, the Greeks shared the booty taken from the enemy. The Normans deputed Ardoin, one of their chiefs, to remonstrate with their allies against so flagrant an act of injustice. The Norman was scourged, conducted round the camp, and returned, covered with blood, to his friends. It was difficult to restrain the impetuosity of soldiers, burning to revenge their general, or to prevent them from marching against the Greeks; but Ardoin conceived the bold project of making himself master of Puglia, and his companions seconded him with so much ardour, that the conquest was an easy one.

Norman princes.

William, surnamed the *Iron Arm*, eldest son of Tancred, and after him, Dreux and Onfroy, his brothers, founded several principalities; lastly, Robert, the fourth of Tancred's twelve sons, and who, from his great cunning, was called *Guischard*, extended these conquests. Master of Puglia, Calabria, the principalities of Salerno and Benevento, he obtained from the pope the title of duke. Roger, his brother, conquered Sicily with a handful of Normans, and took the title of count; his son, Roger, heir of Robert Guischard's dominions, forced the emperor Lothaire and Pope Innocent the Second, to acknowledge him as king; his possessions comprehended almost all the territory, which forms, at present, the kingdom of the two Sicilies.[4]

Thus, the Normans reigned in southern Italy; William the Third, the last of their princes, succeeded to the throne when too young to reign, and his mother, Sibylla, was appointed regent. The emperor Henry the Sixth, who was related to the same family, had been nominated protector; by his instructions Sibylla was confined in prison, and he condemned her son to perpetual bondage, after having deprived him of his sight and virility. Master of the throne, his ambition might have been satisfied, but his cruelty excited him to new crimes, and all the partisans of the Norman princes were destroyed. His avarice prompted him to other acts of injustice; while Richard *Cœur de Lion* was passing through his dominions, Henry confined him in prison, in order to obtain a ransom. The same emperor seized the possessions of the church, and distributed them among his favourites. The last usurpation brought upon him the thunders of the Vatican; but having been reconciled with the church, he commenced anew his cruelties in Italy, with so much atrocity, that his wife put herself at the head of the insurgents, and confined him in a castle. Not long afterwards, the empress, believing her husband penitent, restored him to liberty, and he was preparing to atone for his crimes, by a pilgrimage to the Holy Land; but he was poisoned in 1197, bearing the surname of Cruel, which he had too well deserved. The descendants of Henry reigned at

[4] Histoire des Républiques Italiennes, by M. Sismondi, Histoire des Princes de Normandie en Sicilie, by A. de La Salle.

Naples until the year 1265, when the investiture was bestowed by the pope on the conqueror, who had defeated the usurper Mainfroy.

House of Anjou. Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Lewis, promised to fulfil the intentions of Rome; although it was well known that the nearest heir was alive, reports were circulated concerning his death; the accession of Charles was, therefore, a new usurpation; indeed he himself used to affirm that his government could only be maintained by an iron sceptre. Contradin, the grandson of Henry the Sixth, laid claim to the throne, but he was defeated and decapitated by Charles, an event that tended to increase the hatred of the Sicilians against their new master. The severity of his government, and the French garrisons in all the towns reminded the people of his conquest over them. The French, besides, were dangerous rivals near their wives; these and other causes led to important results. Procida, a proscribed person, conceived the bold design of liberating his country; he was supported by the pope, the Greek emperor, and the king of Arragon. Having disguised himself, he travelled through Sicily, and excited the inhabitants to revolt; the king of Arragon, not unprepared for action, had a fleet on the coasts of Africa, under a pretext of watching the Moors. In the year 1282, on the day before Easter, a lady of Palermo was insulted by a Frenchman during a procession, an insult that gave rise to the rebellion, which has been styled the *Sicilian vespers*. The tumult might have been soon quelled, had it not been for the conspiracy of Procida; the people rushed to arms, and massacred the French. The conspirators invited the king of Arragon, and his fleet to their assistance; they proclaimed him sovereign. The consequence of that event was the separation of the Neapolitan and Sicilian governments; the former continued under the house of Anjou until the year 1382, and in the following century, the two crowns were again united. The possession of Naples and Sicily was the occasion of many wars between France, Spain and the empire. The Spanish branch of the house of Bourbon ruled over the two countries, until the last king fled for refuge to Sicily in 1805. Naples was first given to Joseph Buonaparte by his brother, and afterwards to Joachim Murat in 1808. The old government was restored in 1815.

San Germano. San Germano, on the sides of the Appenines, near the site of two ancient cities, Casinum and Acquinum, of which some ruins remain, is the first town on the frontiers of *Terra di Lavaro*. Murat was defeated in 1815 near the fortress that commands San Germano. The abbot of Monte Cassino resides in the town. The abbey or convent, presenting a front of more than five hundred feet, stands on the summit of a steep mountain. A fine library and a collection of antiquities, are contained in the building. The ashes of St. Benedict, its founder, and St. Scholastico are deposited in the church. The Benedictines of Monte Cassino were formerly the proprietors and the lords of all the neighbouring lands, which now belong to the crown. Banditti infest the country round the abbey; the dead bodies suspended at different distances on the branches of trees, announce the punishment that awaits them, but does not intimidate or deter them from the commission of crimes. The Appenines in the same part of the country assume a new appearance; snow still lingers on many heights in the month of June, exhibiting streaks of silvery whiteness, which, together with the fine walnut trees, render them not unlike the Alps in Switzerland.

Dance of the reapers. The peasants do not inhabit the valleys, because they are unhealthy; but in summer they collect the cherries, and employ themselves in other rural labours. The reapers amuse themselves by dancing, to the accompaniment of the *Zampogna* or rustic flute. Eight men form a circle by taking hold of each others' hands; as many girls leap on their shoulders, and remain while the men dance, pass alternately under one another's arms, and make a thousand evolutions; the girls then de-

scend, and dance or sing in the middle of the circle; lastly, at a given signal, every man receives in his arms her whom he carried on his back. The robust appearance of the men, the slender figures of their partners, and their motley costume, have rather a ludicrous effect; two pieces of cloth, the one red and the other green, encompass their waists; a silver pin binds their long black hair, which sets off their fine complexion.

It has more than once been remarked that in proportion as nature is prodigal in her treasures, in the same ratio does man become careless and slothful. The truth of the observation may be confirmed by visiting Italy, and by comparing it with other countries. It ought not, however, to be concluded that the *far niente*, which distinguishes the Italian, is the effect of climate. The people have retained nothing of the activity and energy of their ancestors; it would be more correct to attribute the change to moral rather than to physical causes.

Charity, so wisely enjoined by the founder of Christianity, but which, when applied, must be directed with judgment by legislators and the interpreters of divine truths, has contributed not a little in countries where industry has not received the necessary impulsion from government, to encourage indolence and servility, to produce corruption and all the vices and crimes which the lower orders of society are tempted to commit. Charity.

What man has visited Italy without remarking the arrogance with which the mendicant exacts the wages of his importunity? He supposes that his wretchedness gives him a right to what he implores; that notion leads to another; mendicity becomes a trade, a sort of industry; shame is then banished from the mind, and if the means of subsistence can be procured by alms, the people choose to beg rather than to work. A person without education and virtue, can perceive little difference between demanding as a supplicant, and exacting as a robber. It is not, therefore, wonderful, that highway robbery should be a profession in countries where mendicity is a trade. Mendicants.

Beggars and bandits, the scourges of Italy, are as common in the kindom of Naples, as in the states of the church. Between Terracina, on the frontiers of the Roman states, and Fondi, a miserable Neapolitan town inhabited by mendicants, the banditti have established their head quarters. Although military posts are stationed at every quarter of a league, a stranger may consider himself fortunate if he escape an attack. Scouts stationed on the rocks that command the road, apprise their chief of a traveller's approach; in a moment, men accustomed to descend the steepest heights, intercept the road almost within sight of the soldiers stationed to repel them. Wo to the brave traveller who offers to resist them, he may atone for his temerity with his life. Not to carry whatever may excite their avarice is not always a security. The inspection of a passport or other papers suffices to indicate the profession or rank of the person to whom it belongs, and he remains a hostage until the sum fixed for his ransom has been paid by a friend or correspondent. The prisoners are seldom detained longer than the stipulated time; if their ransom does not arrive within the period, they are put to death. Bandits.

These men, inured to every sort of crime, are in many instances the fathers of families; they cultivate their fields, and obey implicitly him whom they have chosen for their chief. They wear a particular dress, buskins or sandals attached by cords that reach to the middle of the leg, a broad girdle bound by a silver clasp, pantaloons and waistcoat of blue cloth, with buttons of the same metal, an open shirt, a conical hat encircled with different coloured ribands, a short but loose mantle of a brown colour, a sword belt, to which are suspended a sabre, a dagger, a spoon and a fork. All of them carry fire arms, and wear in their breast an image of the Virgin or the infant Jesus. Saint Antony is their Costume.

favourite patron; why they have chosen that peaceful hermit cannot be easily determined.

The dangers one encounters on the six leagues' stage, between Terracina and Fondi, and the wretched aspect of the inhabitants, may heighten, by contrast, the beauty of the valley, on which the last town is situated. The principal street stands on the Appian way. Bean fields diffuse their fragrance round the neighbouring country; the roads are lined with hedges of aloe, or with orange, lemon, and cyprus trees. At the sight of such profusion, a traveller may be apt to ask if nature has lavished these treasures on a sensual and indolent people. Historical associations give new charms to the varied and picturesque scenery, to the fine views that, in the neighbourhood of Mola, are bounded by the Mediterranean.

Mola. Near that burgh Cicero had his country-house; on the very road by which strangers travel at present, the assassins suborned by Anthony, seized the Roman orator.

Gaeta. Gaeta, which rises like an amphitheatre, on the shores of the sea, was the ancient Gaieta; its harbour was repaired by Antonine the Pious, and its present walls were built by Charles the Fifth; within these walls may be seen the tomb of the Constable Bourbon, whose body was deprived of the rites of sepulture, for more than two centuries, from the year 1528 to 1757, because he had been excommunicated.

Capua. Capua has nothing in common with the luxurious Capua of the ancients, but the name. It was founded by the Lombards, in the year 856; and the streets are as dirty, at present, as they were in the time of these barbarians. Caserta, which owes its origin to the same people, contains one remarkable edifice, the castle built in 1752, by Charles the Third of Spain. These places lead to Naples, the *Neapolis* of the Romans, the *Parthenope* of the Greeks, who, in their brilliant fictions, attributed its foundation to the siren Parthenope, to indicate the safety of its harbour, and its maritime importance.

Naples. Naples stands on a gulf that may be equal to fifty miles in extent; the town and the suburbs are not less than eight miles in circumference. The broad quays, the castle of the Egg, (*Castel dell' Uova*,) that of Saint Elmo, which protrudes into the sea, the island of Capri, rising like a sterile rock from the water, the blackish colour of Vesuvius, which menaces the town with its destructive fires, its sides, covered with the richest verdure, and dotted with white points, or so many country houses, the blue mountains that terminate in the promontory of *Massa*, the *Castèl a Mare*, built on the ruins of *Stabiæ*, where the elder Pliny perished, while contemplating the eruption by which Pompeii was destroyed; lastly, Sorrento on the sea shore, the birth-place of Tasso, form a landscape, of which, the magnificence surpasses the most gorgeous description. He who sees for the first time, the splendid panorama unfolding itself before him, may be apt to exclaim with the Neapolitan, *Vedi Napoli et poi muori.*

The crowded quays announce a populous city, but to judge of Naples, one must repair to the street of Toledo. No street in Paris is so noisy, none exhibit so much confusion; the crowds on a Sunday are so great as to render it impossible for foot passengers to proceed; and yet three hundred carriages pass along it with great velocity, and cross each other in every direction. The Toledo may be called a perpetual fair; the *Aquaiolo* distributes his refreshing beverage, the lazzarone sells his figs, the mountebank exhibits his wonders, and mixing the sacred with the profane, gives his hearers some notion of future bliss, from the pleasure they experience in eating his macaroni. Sometimes a funeral procession advances, in the midst of the throng, with all the pomp of a triumph. The coffin is deposited in a sort of ark or bier, resplendent with gold and silver, and resting on a pedestal, covered with crimson velvet.

The motion and the bustle which distinguish Naples, are no proofs of industry or labour. The Neapolitans agitate and torment themselves without doing any thing, as they quarrel and menace each other, without ever coming to blows. It may be readily conceived, that these remarks are only applicable to the lower orders, but in such classes, the national character may be easily observed. The general hatred against those who hold the balance of Themis, may proceed from the conviction that the laws are unjustly administered. If a person, caught in the act of picking another's pocket, be beaten or scourged, the people approve of the correction, but if he be conducted to the tribunal, they murmur, they are dissatisfied. If a crime has been committed, the people pity the man who has suffered from it, but if the criminal be apprehended, he then becomes an object of sympathy. Let not the reader confound, in these characteristic traits, pity for the man who is justly punished, with the jealous hatred that the people bear towards the wealthy or privileged classes, who are too often suffered to commit offences with impunity. | Manners of the people.

There is no town where the inhabitants make such use of their canes, as at Naples; if an individual were to strike a hackney coachman in London or Paris, he might be repaid with interest, but the hackney coachmen of Naples submit to castigation with the greatest patience.

The Lazzaroni lead a very monotonous life. Unemployed, and servile from indolence or want of energy, they rarely disturb the tranquillity of a town, where the police does nothing for the public safety. They have only evinced their hostile intentions on a few great occasions, and under a government odious to every class of the community. These men, who obtain as much macaroni as they can eat for three halfpence, and quench their thirst with iced water for a farthing, may easily satisfy their most urgent wants. Ice is as much an article of necessity at Naples, as bread is, in temperate regions, and government takes care that the people have it at a cheap rate. It has been said, that a day without ice, might make the Neapolitans revolt, and there is more truth in the saying than many are apt to suppose. | Lazzaroni.

Mendicity assumes all its varied forms to deceive the stranger, or move the pity of the passenger; theft, too, is most common; if a person does not use great precautions, he may be deprived of his watch or purse. | Mendicity.—Theft.

So great is the dexterity of the pickpockets, that one might believe the ancient Parthenope had been founded by a colony of Spartans.

The revolution, by which Joseph Buonaparte, afterwards Joachim Murat, were raised to the throne of Naples, was attended with the inconvenience of removing some favourites, and of impressing a new direction on kingly favour. But it had the advantage of bringing forward superior men, animated with good intentions, and even the present government has profited by the useful lesson, which the usurpation afforded. Good roads were made into remote provinces, and industry was encouraged; order was introduced into the administration; a regular code of laws was substituted for the inextricable confusion of ill-digested and contradictory precedents; assassins were disarmed; and the revenue, although almost doubled by oppressive taxes on the rich, was at least expended among the poor, and stimulated their industry. Public schools, for the lower orders, were established at the expense of government, and the teachers received a fixed salary of fifteen ducats a month. Although these schools were ill-attended at first, the number of scholars increased gradually, and they are still increasing, for they have not yet been abolished. | Revolution at Naples.

The rising generation among the lower orders in the town, can now read and write, a degree of knowledge, which is by no means common in the country. Murat, in the year 1807, established | Education.

fourteen royal colleges, and appointed able professors; they were attended by six thousand students, but the number has decreased. Boys of noble, or rich families, are rarely sent to college; some have private tutors, or receive lessons at home, from the professors of colleges; but a great many, brought up among servants, receive no education, and few instances are to be found, of young men, who are devoted to literary or scientific pursuits. Of the women, comparatively few are now sent to a convent to be educated. Queen Caroline, the wife of Murat, established, at the expense of government, a seminary for young ladies of noble families, something like the one at St. Denis, in France, and the present authorities keep up the institution.

Manners of the rich. | Among the rich, pride and vanity are the motives of every action. Women, above the lower ranks, seldom or never walk on the streets; those who cannot afford a carriage, doom themselves to perpetual imprisonment in their own houses, or only go to church with one or two poor lazzaroni, hired for the occasion, who put on antiquated livery, and carry a book and a cushion. Good natured husbands sometimes peform the office, thinking, probably, that they cannot be recognised in the disguise of a footman, and choosing to gratify vanity at the expense of pride.[4] The luxury of the rich is displayed in their horses and carriages; as to their morals, they do not think it necessary to sacrifice appearances to realities; a lady talks of her intrigues and her children, of her lovers and her husband.

The largest and most commodious houses are situated in the Chiaja, the finest of the five suburbs that communicate with Naples. It extends westwards, and is terminated by a long quay, or rather a public walk, planted with orange and lemon trees, and adorned with lawns and fountains. It is there that the Farnese bull, a *chef-d'œuvre* of antiquity has been placed; near it may be seen the bust of Tasso, for which the French erected a rotundo, supported by white marble columns. The finest coffee-houses in Naples, are situated in the same walk; which is crowded every evening with carriages. The different quarters of the town are embellished with fountains, and the water is supplied by an aqueduct, that extends from the base of mount Vesuvius.

Squares,—streets. | With the exception of the court in front of the royal palace, all the other squares are small and irregular; the dark and narrow streets near the centre of the town, are lined with lofty houses; the smooth pavement is formed by large black stones, or lava from Vesuvius.

Theatres,—palaces. | The theatre of San Carlos, which communicates with the royal palace, is more remarkable than any other, from its dimensions and elegant structure; and no palace can be compared with the one inhabited by the sovereign. The architecture is modern; the front extends to the distance of six hundred feet; it consists of twenty-two windows and three doors, adorned with granite columns, which support balconies.

Cathedral. | The cathedral is also called the Vescovado and San Gennaro, or San Januarius, a personage held in veneration by the people, and whose blood, preserved in two small phials, excites the joy or despair of the populace, according as it dissolves or coagulates on the nineteenth of September, the birth-day of the patron saint. The church is of Gothic architecture, it stands on the ruins of a temple consecrated to Apollo. Of the other two hundred churches in the town, there are hardly any worthy of Italy.

Naples, says Doctor Valentin, had not, before the last century, a number of charitable institutions proportionate to its population. There are, at

[4] Simond's Travels in Italy.

present, twelve hospitals, including the Invalids, the Foundling, and the Reclusorio. The hospital of incurables is the largest and best kept in the town; nearly a thousand patients are confined in it, but it might contain double the number. Four clinical chairs, dependent on the university, are attached to the institution; the first relates to medicine, the second to surgery, the third to midwifery, and the fourth to diseases of the eye.

Industry.

The industry of the Neapolitans is confined to a few manufactures, such as ribands and silk stockings; many are employed in making macaroni and different kinds of pastry. The perfumed soaps, and the musical cords of Naples, are imported into different countries. The comfits of the same town, particularly the *diavolini*, are said to be the best in Italy.

Environs of Naples.

We have already spoken of the catacombs at Rome; those near Naples are more extensive. They occupy the cavities in a height situated to the north of the town. The galleries, cut in a sandy volcanic rock, which was worked at a very remote period, are in several places eighteen or twenty feet broad by fourteen high. These galleries were used as cemeteries during the first centuries of the Christian era.

Pompeii.

No course of archaiology can be so satisfactory as a visit to Pompeii, a great city of the Roman empire, swallowed by an eruption from Vesuvius, of which the fires have hitherto spared Naples, although both places are situated nearly at equal distances from the mountain, the first in a westerly direction, the other towards the north. When the volcano, which had ceased to burn, at a date anterior to the historical period, commenced anew, in the year seventy-nine of the christian era, Pompeii was overwhelmed by a deluge of ashes, water, and mud. The greater number of the inhabitants had, in all probability, full time to escape with their most valuable effects, a fact that may be inferred from the inconsiderable number of skeletons which have been hitherto discovered, not one hundred in all, and from the small quantity either of jewels or money. They might have returned after the catastrophe, to collect whatever was of value, for it is very remarkable that the lowest stratum appears to have been pierced or broken, while the upper do not. Eight strata of volcanic deposites succeed each other; from which it may be concluded, that eruptions have taken place at different times in the same direction. Scoria and pumice, no lava, are found among the igneous products. A modern may walk in the streets, and enter the houses of Pompeii. The high road that leads to it, is paved with huge pieces of lava, irregularly shaped, but arranged so as to fit each other, and presenting a tolerably flat surface; from the narrowness of the road, however, the wheels ran constantly in the same track, which is deeply marked on the stones. The walls of the town were first cleared, and the whole circumference is now exposed to view. These walls, which, from certain ancient characters, on many parts of them, appear to have been founded by the Osci, long before the foundation of Rome, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, on the outside, but they form, inside, an inclined plane, with narrow steps, for soldiers to ascend to the top. The barracks are in a good state of preservation; they resemble a cloister for monks, being a quadrangular court with high walls and small rooms without windows, under a projecting roof, supported by pillars. The indecent sketches and writings on the walls by the Roman soldiers, the fruits of their idleness, have excited great curiosity. The rubbish has been taken away from two theatres, an amphitheatre, and most of the houses in the town. It may be thus seen that it was customary for the ancients to write the names of the proprietors above the doors of the houses.

Herculaneum.

Herculaneum, buried under torrents of lava, above which a town is built, has only been explored in order to collect the

treasures, which give so much interest to the museum in the royal palace at Portici. The excavations which were then made, have been since filled. The town was larger and more important than Pompeii; it may be regretted that it cannot be seen.

Naples seen from Camaldoli.

The finest views of Naples, are from the castle of Portici, from the Capo de Monti, where one may count its palaces and churches, and observe the islands which rise at the entrance of its gulf, and the sea lost in the horizon. But the garden of Camaldoli is not less celebrated; situated on the summit of a volcanic hill, twelve hundred feet in height, near a convent, in which, the monks are so insensible to the magic of a natural landscape, that they wonder why so many strangers visit them. The view extends towards the north, along the vast plains of Campania, bounded by the mountains of Abruzzi; and Naples appears on one side, between Pozzuoli and Vesuvius. From the same gardens are seen the lake Avernus, no longer exhaling the noxious vapours mentioned by Virgil, and no longer suffocating the birds that fly above its surface, the modern Solfatara or the ancient valley of Phlegra, the *Forum Vulcani*, the lake Agnano, from whose bubbling waters streams of hydrogen escape, the Fusaro, the Acheron of the poets, and lastly, Baia or Baiæ, of which the soil is now arid and sterile; but its enchanting sites induced Cæsar and Nero to build palaces near the temples of Diana, Venus and Hercules.

Pausilippo.

We may descend from Camaldoli, and direct our steps to the hill, now called Monte Pausilippo, a promontory that separates Naples from the Phlegrean fields. A subterranean road, supposed to be the most ancient work of the kind, passes through the hill. "The road," says Strabo, "extends through the mountain, situated between *Neapolis* (Naples) and *Dicæarchia* (Pozzuoli.) The breadth is so great, that carriages cross each other without inconvenience, and the light of day is admitted in many places by apertures dug to a great depth from the surface of the mountain."* The account given by the Greek geographer, is a very correct one, of the grotto of Pozzuoli, which may be equal to eighty or ninety feet in height, to twenty-four or thirty in breadth, and to two thousand one hundred and eighty in length. The excavations were not attended with much difficulty; the mountain is wholly composed of volcanic tufa. Although paved, it is always covered with dust; the light enters at the two extremities, and by two apertures near the centre. The servants of the wealthy carry torches before them, but foot passengers are contented with lanterns and the feeble glimmerings that pass through the openings. Twice a year, in October and February, the last rays of the setting sun penetrate through the long vista.

Pozzuoli.

Temples, amphitheatres, and other ancient ruins are scattered on the coast, between the subterranean passage and Cape Miseno. The small town of Pozzuoli, after having been exposed to the devastations of barbarians, was overturned in 1538 by an earthquake. The cathedral stands near the ruins of a temple dedicated to Augustus. Some parts of its ancient amphitheatre remain, but at no great distance from the town, is seen the temple of Serapis, a monument likely to fix the attention of the antiquarian and geologist. It stands on the shore, at fifteen feet above the level of the sea; it was, at a period beyond the reach of tradition, buried under volcanic ashes.

Temple of Serapis.

About seventy years ago these deposites were removed, the pavement of the temple was discovered, and there were found marble vessels, to receive the blood of the victims, brass rings to fasten them, broken statues and columns. But what is very extraordinary, pho-

* Strabo, Book V. Chap. 10.

lades had pierced those parts of the marble columns still standing, with innumerable holes, that reach to the height of five or six feet.

Pholades.

These marine molluscæ are very common in the European seas; they are bivalvular, armed with teeth and several accessary parts, which, by a rotatory movement, penetrate the hardest calcareous rocks.[f] But the marble of which the columns are formed, exhibits no traces of these animals; it may be supposed, therefore, that the holes were made since the catastrophe by which the temple was covered with volcanic ashes. To explain the phenomenon it has been supposed that the sea had risen, at least, to the height of the marks left by the pholades. But the fallacy of such an opinion may be easily shown; in the first place, the event must have happened after the commencement of our era; secondly, several ancient towns, situated on the coasts of the Mediterranean, and Naples itself, must have been destroyed by such a calamity.

Explanation of the phenomenon.

It is true that during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, as M. Simond remarks, the coast of Baiæ was exposed to several volcanic shocks, and the ruins now submerged, attest the encroachments of the water. But if it be attempted to explain the phenomena connected with the temple of Serapis, by such facts, it must be supposed, what is inadmissible, that the land has risen, after having been once submerged, for the pavement of the temple is higher than the level of the sea. Thus, it happens that vague conjectures are the consequence of careless observation. When the volcanic deposites were removed, and the edifice was discovered, a small lake, formed after the outlet of a stream had been closed by the deposites, watered its base. The lake might have become salt by the hydrochlorate of soda, contained in certain products of Vesuvius; and if it be supposed, what is not improbable, that the waters of the lake communicated for some time, at least, by a subterranean passage with the sea, the presence of these pholades, their prolonged existence, may be classed among the number of physical facts, which, however extraordinary, are by no means irreconcileable with the laws of nature.

Tomb of Virgil.

A monument on the opposite side of Mount Posilippo, formed by a large square base, constructed of stones and bricks, on which a circular tower rises, commands the respect and admiration of travellers;—it is the tomb of Virgil. The interior consists of a square and vaulted chamber; and the tomb is covered with earth, on which many shrubs grow, but the laurel planted by Petrarch exists no longer. The people say that the roots are still to be found, that they are immortal, like the ashes of the divine poet, nay, that they bud, if the soil be moistened with rain, but that travellers pull the leaves as soon as they appear.

Salerno.

It has been seen that the small province of Naples contains many places of great celebrity. The ancient Salernum is situated in the *Citerior Principality;* it was fortified by the Romans, that they might be better able to keep the *Picentini* in subjection, who embraced the party of Hannibal.[g] One part of the town extends along the sea shore, and the other rises in the form of an amphitheatre, to the castle that commands it. The cathedral, surrounded by a portico supported by ancient pillars of porphyry, contains the tomb of Pope Gregory the Seventh, and, according to tradition, the ashes of St. Matthew the evangelist. The port, built on a gulf, was the most frequented on the coast, before Naples rose into importance. But the celebrity of Salerno, in the eleventh century,

[f] M. Simond is mistaken in supposing that the pholades exude a chemical acid, and thus perforate the rocks in which they are found. It is known, besides, that they make holes in wood, and if their physical structure enable them to secrete so powerful a solvent as nitric acid, it is certain that *gastronomes* would not consider them a great delicacy, or give so much for them as they do at present.

[g] Strabo, Book V. chap. 10. sect. 3.

depended principally on its schools of philosophy and medicine; several precepts, which emanated from the latter, were long obeyed as oracular.

The ruins of Policastro, formerly Palæocastrum, rises at the extremity of a gulf; near it may be seen the remains of the three temples at Pestum, now Pesto; they were built by the Sybarites.

Avellino. Part of the Appenines are now situated in the *Ulterior principality;* Avellino, or its capital, was the ancient *Abellinum Hirpinorum.* The streets, though broad, are irregular; and the public walks are shaded with fine trees. The produce of its territory consists in chesnuts and in the large filbert, called *aveline,* from the name of the town. The Val di Gargano occupies the site where the Romans passed under the yoke of the Samnites. Ariano, a place of more importance than Avellino, is built at a greater height on the Appenines.

Aquila. Near the summits of the same mountains, and at some distance from the last town, is situated Aquila, the metropolis of the *Second Ulterior Abruzzo;* it carries on a considerable trade in saffron; and four great fairs are held in it every year. The town has been more than once injured by earthquakes, and a small fort is the only part of its old fortifications that now remain. The antiquities which are contained in it, were discovered in the neighbourhood, on the site of *Amiternum,* the birth-place of the historian Sallust. To the north-east, in the Ulterior Abruzzo, Terano rises in the middle of a plain, between the Appenines and the Adriatic sea; it possesses some woollen manufactories, and in proportion to its size, an extensive trade in grain. Towards the south-east may be seen the banks of the Pescara, a river which descends from the Appenines to the Adriatic, and waters, near its embouchure, a small town, to which it has given its name. Chieti, the chief town of the Citerior Abruzzo, stands on its right bank; it is pleasantly situated, well built, and contains several fine edifices; amongst others, a cathedral and a very large seminary.

Origin of the Theatines. It was the chief town of the Marrucini, and the *Teate* of the Romans, from which a celebrated religious order, the Theatines, have derived their name. The order of the Theatines was founded by Caraffa, the archbishop of the town, who was afterwards Pope Paul the Fourth. Lanciano carries on a considerable trade in muscadine wine.

Campobasso, once famous for its cutlery, is situated in the district of Molise. The adjoining province of Capitanata forms the greater part of Puglia. It is divided in the direction of south-west to north-east, by a chain of calcareous heights, that terminates at Mount Gargano (*Garganus Mons;*) their declivities and surrounding hills form a large promontory on the Adriatic. The summits are covered with forests, in which are collected, as in ancient times, manna, turpentine and pitch. A large and sandy plain extends on the south of the chain to the sea. Manfredonia is the most important harbour in the province, although large vessels cannot enter it. The town was built in 1256 by Mainfroi, who gave it his name.

Foggia. Foggia, the chief town in the Capitanata, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1732, but it has been rebuilt with elegance and regularity. The Candelaro, which flows beneath its walls, facilitates its trade in grain. The people have long been in the habit of preserving their corn in vaulted and subterranean magazines, buildings not unlike the ancient *silos.*

Canne. Near the limits of the Terri di Bari, not far from the banks of the Ofanto, is situated the *Campo di Sangue,* or field of blood; it is there that the famous battle of Cannæ was fought. The village of Canna on the right of the river, stands on the site of the ancient Cannæ. The town of Canosa, the ancient *Canusium,* founded by Diomed, was destroyed by an earthquake. The pope had a palace there, and the emperor Henry the Fourth stood at its gate during three days in the winter of 1077,

imploring pardon from Gregory the Seventh, by whom he had been excommunicated.

The Terra di Bari, a province destitute of wood but abounding in salt, forms part of the ancient Puglia. Altamura, or the largest town beyond the Appenine chain, which crosses Bari, contains sixteen thousand inhabitants. If Bitonto be excepted, a place that carries on a great trade in *zagarello*, an excellent wine, the principal cities on the eastern side of the mountains, are situated on the sea coast. Trani or one of them forms an enclosure round its harbour, which scarcely contains sufficient water for ordinary vessels. It is related, that in 1502, a time when people talked more of national glory than at present, eleven French horsemen and as many Spaniards, fought under the walls of Trani to support the respective honour of the two countries. The Spaniards killed two of the Frenchmen, the latter dismounted and defended themselves until night put an end to the contest, and left the victory undecided. Barletta, another sea port, about two leagues to the north of Trani, was founded by one of the Norman chiefs who conquered Puglia. Several moles near the harbour, serve as a barrier against the billows, and an ancient citadel may defend the town in the event of a foreign attack. Bari, the chief town of the province, was thrice destroyed, and as often rebuilt, but its narrow and crooked streets, and the absence of any thing like a fine building hardly entitle it to its rank as capital. It possesses a harbour, which although small, offers a safe asylum for ships. | Terra di Bari.

The *Terra d'Otranto*, a continuation of the province of Bari, forms what the ancient geographers called the heel of the Italian boot. *Brendusium*, now Brendisi, was the harbour in which Julius Cæsar blockaded his antagonist Pompey, who made a passage for himself in the midst of the besiegers, and fled for safety to Greece. The town has been much injured by earthquakes, and the harbour was destroyed in the fifteenth century by a method which the prince of Otranto adopted, in order to close the entrance to the Venetian fleet. Several vessels were sunk at its mouth, the sands and other deposits being thus confined were consequently accumulated, and the port, thus changed into an unwholesome marsh, engenders every summer pestilential diseases, by which the population has been reduced to a third of what it was in past times. The town does not contain at present six thousand inhabitants. Lecce, between Brendisi and Otranto, at three leagues distance from the sea, is not only the capital, but the finest and largest city in the province; its inhabitants are held in the same repute at Naples, that the Beotians were at Athens. The valley which separates Lecce from Otranto, has been called the paradise of the country. The small town and the harbour, that have given their name to the province, stand on the site of the ancient Hydruntum, which received with the benefits of civilization, the first lessons in philosophy from Pythagoras. | Terra d'Otranto.

Gallipoli, or the first port in the gulf of Tarento, after passing cape Leuca, owes its activity to its tunny fisheries, and manufactures, which consists in cotton stockings and muslin. Tarento at the northern extremity of the gulf, was in ancient times a place of some importance, Strabo commends its fine and spacious harbour, but at present it only occupies the space round the citadel, from which the Romans resisted Hannibal.

It was principally from the gulf of Tarento, that the ancients obtained the mollusca that supplied them with their purple. A cavity below the neck of the animal is filled with the liquid that yields the colour, but the quantity contained in each cavity is so small as to account for the excessive price which the ancients gave for the die. | Purple.

Tarento or Taranto has given its name to the tarantula (*lycosa tarentula*,) an insect well known from the fables concerning the effects of its sting. It was long believed that those who were stung by it, exhibited very different symptoms; some laughed, others wept, one person | Tarantula.

was mournful and silent, another continued singing from morning till evening; many were seized with drowsiness, others could not be prevented from dancing: music was found to be the most effectual remedy for all. The sting of the tarantula, although not without danger, yields readily to different remedies. The animal, a species of spider, is of a black colour with red and black streaks on the abdomen; it may be about an inch in length. The web of the tarantula serves to envelope its young, and to cover the cell which it digs in the earth. It feeds on different insects, and lies frequently in ambush for them near the entrance of its den. It often makes excursions into the fields, sometimes into the houses, but it always carries its prey home. "The eggs of the same animal," says an able naturalist, "are like the grains of a white poppy; when the insects break them, the mother tears the covering, and carries her young on her back, until they are able to provide for themselves."[h] The male and female are only seen together at the season of coition, at other times they kill each other. It is not easy to make it leave its cell, but if it be once dislodged, and return afterwards, it allows itself to be destroyed rather than be removed a second time.

Potenza. Potenza or the capital of the Basilicata is situated at the base of the Appenines. The same town and Matera at twelve leagues from it towards the south-east, although ill peopled, are the most important in the province, which derived its name in the tenth century from Basil the Second, emperor of the east, who conferred probably some privileges on the inhabitants. It is at present the poorest province in the kingdom of Naples.

Calabria. Mount Polino separates Basilicata from the two provinces of Calabria,—provinces destitute of important towns, and inhabited by a poor and wretched people. Bathed on the east, the west and the south by the sea, and traversed by a branch of the Appenines, the two Calabrias are indented with large gulfs, cooled by the sea breeze, and watered by heavy dews, springs and rivers, which increase the fertility of a black and rich loam. The Citerior Calabria terminates at Mount Calistro, and at the banks of the Neto. Cassano, Rossano and Bisignano are some of the towns in the province; the making of olive oil is the only branch of industry in which the inhabitants of Rosano are engaged, and the sale forms their only commerce. Cariati, a place more populous than any of the others, contains hardly nine thousand inhabitants; the best manna in Calabria is produced in the neighbourhood. The streets in Cosenza or the capital at the confluence of the Crati and Bussento, are narrow and crooked; it possesses, however, several useful establishments, such as hospitals, a college and two academies, a fine cathedral and a court of justice, edifices which strangers are surprised to see in so small a town. More important cities are situated in the Ulterior Calabria, some of them were celebrated in ancient times.

Cotrona. The walls of the famous Crotona are seen on the eastern coast, and its ruins encompass the modern town of *Cotrona*. Crotona, rich and populous, could recruit an army of a hundred thousand combatants within its walls and territory, Cotrona contains hardly six thousand souls. Not to mention the robust Milo, it is known that the inhabitants of Crotona were renowned, the men for their symmetry and strength, the women for their beauty; how their descendants have degenerated! Cotrona contained many fine edifices; its gymnastic games and the schools of philosophy founded by Pythagoras, rendered it the first of the Greek colonies; it contains at present six churches, two convents and a seminary, but no buildings worthy of notice. Catanzaro, although possessing little or no trade, is more populous than Cotrona.

[h] M. Latreille de l'Academie des Sciences.

Pizzo is situated on the western sides of the Appenines, on the gulf of Saint Euphemia. Joachim Murat landed at its little harbour on the eighth of October, 1815, and attempted to regain his throne. Taken prisoner and ill treated by those who had long acknowledged him as their king, condemned as a common malefactor, and interred in the very church which he had rebuilt, his death may be considered not only as one of the catastrophes which result from political revolutions, but as a characteristic trait of a people, who afterwards showed themselves incapable of enjoying the institutions which they apparently desired. | Pizzo.

The wretched town of Gerace, built on the ruins of the second *Locra*, and at some distance from the ancient city of the Locri, does not contain four thousand inhabitants. Bova, a still smaller town, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1783, and afterwards rebuilt and improved by Ferdinand the Fourth. | Gerace.

The country in the neighbourhood of Reggio abounds with figs and ananas; and the town is the capital of Ulterior Calabria; the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in lemons, oranges and bergamot. As a town, Reggio is nowise remarkable, its name indicates its position on the site of the ancient Rhegium, once, according to Strabo, a powerful city, but afterwards wholly destroyed by Dionysius the elder. The tyrants of Syracuse were dreaded on the coasts of Italy. The inhabitants of Rhegium formed a league against Dionysius; but when the hostilities had ceased and a peace had been concluded, the tyrant declared to the magistrates that he intended to choose a wife among the daughters of the families in Rhegium; the latter not wishing an alliance with their enemy, answered that they could only give him *the daughter of the executioner*. Indignant at such an answer, Dionysius laid siege to the town, and after a series of cruelties, the details of which are mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, his vengeance was so complete that, notwithstanding all the efforts of Dionysius the younger, the place could never be restored to its ancient splendour.[1] The city which was built on its ruins, fell at a later period into the power of the Romans. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and rebuilt by Cæsar, hence it was called *Rhegium Julii*. Barbarossa reduced it to ashes in 1543; between that period and the year 1593, it was twice pillaged by the Turks and injured by earthquakes; but the one, which happened in 1783, was attended with more disastrous consequences than any other. The last calamity by which all Calabria was devastated, was so extraordinary both from its duration and effects, that it may be necessary to give some account of it. | Reggio.

The first shocks were felt about noon on the fifth of February, and renewed at short intervals during several months. They were not preceded by any of the ordinary indications, and in a few minutes all the plains in Ulterior Calabria were laid waste. Those who witnessed the frightful calamity, declared that the oscillations were so frequent and so violent that nothing could resist them,—neither the works of nature, nor the most solid works of man. Edifices were overturned, and their fragments thrown to a distance. The materials of the small town of Sciglio, built on the promontory of Scylla, overwhelmed two thousand seven hundred persons that had fled to the coast for refuge. The ruins of villages rolled from the hills. The mountains opened, others gave way, and the upborne earth formed new heights. In one part, the plains were changed into lakes, and their waters covered the harvests; in another, rivers issued from their beds, and changed the direction of their course. Movements similar to the undulations of waves were seen on the land. Different places were raised into the air, and fell as if they had been mined by gun- | Earthquake of 1783.

[1] Strabo, Book 6. chap. 11.

powder. The sea rose above its ordinary limits, and many who ran for safety to the shore or to their ships, were destroyed.

Some pressed the expiring bodies of their friends, and in a few seconds shared their fate. Lovers rushed into the gulf that had swallowed the object of their affections; mothers restored to life by the care and good offices of relatives, sought their children amidst the ruins of their houses, and were buried with them in the same grave.

Effects of the catastrophe. More than three hundred towns or villages were destroyed, and many places that have been already mentioned, were much injured; forty thousand individuals perished, and twenty thousand were the victims of contagious diseases, occasioned perhaps by putrid carcasses in stagnant water, or under the ruins and rubbish of buildings. To add to the misfortunes of the people, the fires, left in the houses, communicated with the combustible materials, and the flames destroyed what the earthquake had spared. Lastly, the little that remained was seized by banditti, who, in the general consternation, massacred the inhabitants, and carried off whatever was of value. The inhumanity and intrepidity of these men, who rushed from several parts of Italy into Calabria, cannot be considered extraordinary by persons acquainted with the character of the Neapolitan bandits. But several examples of courage and disinterestedness might be mentioned to the honour of the Calabrians and the rest of the nation. The inhabitants of districts far removed from the scene of calamities, rivalled each other in mitigating the misfortunes of an impoverished people;—the custom-house officers of Naples, and the Lazzaroni sent by government to Calabria, gave the wages of their labour to the poor inhabitants.

Earthquakes are not the only evils to which the two Calabrias are exposed; there are others, as the blast of the sirocco, which prevailing four months in the year, produces diseases and destroys vegetation. The miasms rising from the stagnant waters in summer, compel the inhabitants to leave the plains and to reside on the mountains.

Vegetation. The vegetation of the two Calabrian provinces, varies according to the exposure of the soil. The grape might yield excellent wine, if the inhabitants bestowed any care on its culture. The echinated liquorice (*Glycyrrhiza echinata*,) a variety not inferior to the Spanish kind, grows naturally; and the leaves of the mulberry nourish an immense number of silk worms. The olive, a tree that may be seen almost in every part of Calabria, produces so much oil that the inhabitants keep it in large cisterns; the manniferous ash (*Fraxinus rotundifolia*,) indigenous to the provinces, grows without culture in the plains and on all the hills; it is during the excessive heat of summer, that it yields the juice so useful in medicine; the palm, the cotton plant, and the sugar cane flourish. The fruits of the orange and the lemon tree add to the amount of the exports, and the different kinds of grain are sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. Larches and other resinous trees afford different kinds of pitch, and the *Bretian*, the most valuable of any, and one used for different purposes at a very remote period, is still found in the Sila, an ancient forest on the summits of the Appenines, which, according to Strabo, was seven hundred stadia or twenty-three leagues in length. The thick leaved aloe crowns the arid rocks; the rose laurel shades the banks of the rivers, and mingles its flowers and its foliage with the leaves of the *arrundinaria*, a sort of grass that is converted into cordage, mats and baskets.

Animals. Spirited horses, large and hardy mules, numerous herds and flocks, woods abounding with game and wild buffaloes, might be enumerated among the animals of the two Calabrias. The ancients said that the dews of the evenings made the grass grow, which the cattle had browsed during the day, a metaphor not so improbable as those who live in northern latitudes might be apt to suppose.

The natural riches of the country are increased by the fish that are

taken on the coast; the tunny fisheries are the most profitable; the sword-fish (*Xiphias gladius*,) serves as food to the Calabrians. The last animal has derived its name from a hard or bony substance, that extends from its muzzle, and with which it defends itself against its enemies. The sword-fish grows to the length of eighteen or twenty feet, and weighs, sometimes, four hundred pounds. It is difficult, nay, often dangerous to take it, on account of its great activity, and the weapon with which it is armed; it breaks the nets of the fishermen, who are obliged to harpoon it. The corals that cover the bays are valuable from their fine colour; and the fishermen take the *Pinna nobilis*, the largest of the bivalvular molluscas, covered with the long red silk that the people at Reggio weave into different stuffs of admirable lightness.

Manners and character of the Calabrians.

The Calabrians delight in idleness, the *far niente* has more charms to them than to the other Italians; wearing loose mantles like the Spaniards, they resemble the same people in their black eyes and dark complexion. Suspicious and vindictive, a Calabrian seldom leaves his house without being armed. Tall or strong men and handsome women are equally rare in the province; the latter marry at an early age, and soon lose their looks. Notwithstanding the great number of marriages, and the fruitfulness of the women, the country is ill-peopled, and the cause may partly be attributed to the custom of relatives marrying with each other; the inhabitants of almost every village, and of many small towns in Calabria, are so many kinsmen and kinswomen.

The children, it is known are unhealthy, and the consanguinity of the parents may tend to perpetuate diseases. The dowry of a peasant girl consists in a small piece of ground, or in a vine, nay, sometimes in a single mulberry tree.

Condition of the peasants.

Little has been done to improve the condition of the peasantry; most of them are small farmers, or day labourers; the land is divided among the nobles, the clergy, and some burgesses, who let it on short leases. Thus, it happens that agriculture is still in a very imperfect state, and that a fruitful soil nourishes a poor and sickly population scattered in wretched hovels, in dirty villages or deserted towns.

Gipsies.

We had occasion, in treating of Hungary, to make some remarks on a people of uncertain origin, who, in that country, are styled *Ziguene*, the same people are found in Calabria, the Italians call them *Zingari*. They are distinguished from a poor population by their greater poverty, their squalid appearance and dress. The men shave their beards, but suffer their hair to grow; they gain a subsistence by buying and selling horses, and by working iron; many of them are conjurors, they collect crowds on the public places, and perform their different feats with great skill and address. The women wander about the country, and live by pilfering, or telling fortunes. Without any fixed habitation, living under tents, where men, women, children, and animals are crowded together, they form a distinct people from the other inhabitants; they marry among themselves. According to travellers, the Zingari are more ignorant and dissolute than the Calabrians; all of them can speak Italian, but many words in their own dialect indicate its eastern origin. Their religion is a compound of Christianity and different superstitions; they admit the divinity of Jesus Christ, but they have no veneration for the Virgin. As to marriages, funerals, and baptisms, they conform readily to Catholic ceremonies, but if the clergymen refuse to celebrate them, the Zingari have no scruples in substituting others, which were probably derived from Paganism.

Extent of the Neapolitan territory.

A distance of a hundred and ten leagues forms the greatest length of the continental provinces, in the Neapolitan kingdom; their mean breadth varies from twenty to thirty, but they are upwards of seventy in some parts.

Luminous phenomenon. | A phenomenon similar to the mirage on the coast of Africa, and one that can only be accounted for by the refraction of light, has sometimes been observed on the coasts of the strait, which separates Reggio from Messina. A few minutes before the sun issues from the waves, in summer, a spectator on the shores of Sicily, opposite Reggio, may see forests, towers, and palaces in the air, and the whole forms the panorama of Messina, its hills, woods, and houses. If a spectator on the Italian coast looks towards Messina, he sees, also, in the clouds, the image of a city similar to Reggio. The illusion has hitherto been imperfectly explained, it would be less extraordinary if a person saw the town that bounded the horizon, instead of the one near which he was placed. The phenomenon has given rise to several fables, in Calabria and Sicily, for the people have inherited from the Greeks, the love of marvellous and brilliant fictions. *Fatamorgana*, a powerful fairy, rules over the Strait of Messina, she displays her aerial palaces to mariners, that they may be shipwrecked on the rocks, where the modern Circe waits to destroy them.

Sicily. | Sicily possesses more than two hundred and thirty leagues of coast, and several important harbours, as Messina, Palermo, Syracuse, and Catania. It is divided into seven *intendencies*, and twenty-three districts. It was once the country of the arts; such was its prosperity in ancient times, that the inhabitants in the single town of Syracuse, were almost as numerous as the whole present population. The same island, during the zenith of Napoleon's power, was the only state in Europe governed by a prince of the house of Bourbon. It retained its feudal customs with the parliament of the *Three Arms*, (*Tre Braçci*,) until lord William Bentick, the English ambassador, induced his Sicilian majesty to grant his subjects a representative government, framed after the model of the British constitution. "The advantages or the necessary consequences of the new system," says the Count Fedor de Karaczay,[k] "must, ere long, have been felt by every class of the community. The privileged classes were to be put on an equality with the others, in order that they might contribute to the prosperity of the country. The epoch of the hundred days, the treaty of Paris, the defeat of Murat by the Austrians, enabled Ferdinand to regain the throne of Naples. The selfish and limited notions of the Sicilian barons, the ancient feudal proprietors, were carried into effect. It was thought that the times of the three *bracci* were to return, and with the parliament, the feudal rights. All the nobles united to overturn the constitution, but they little imagined that they were to gain nothing by the change. The constitution was, indeed, abolished by a decree, published at Messina, but the privileges of the nobles have not been restored. Ferdinand the First took the title of king of the Two Sicilies, on the eighth of December, 1816, and Sicily was declared a province of the kingdom.[l] The nobles acknowledged their errors, while it was too late to correct them; taught by the past, they may not, perhaps, be again so easily deceived.

Present state of the island. | While a Frenchman reigned over Naples, the Sicilians possessed a considerable inland trade, Palermo was the residence of a king and a numerous court; but the Sicilians are now governed by the lieutenant of a viceroy, and the circulating medium, attracted to Naples, is daily becoming more scarce in the island. No manufacturing industry tends to bring back the money, which the Sicilian courtiers spend at Naples. Different objects of luxury, muslin, linens, and other articles, are imported from England or France, and, in order to satisfy factitious but urgent wants, the island furnishes raw materials, of which, the production affords employment to a small number of hands. The most important of these

[k] Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, published in French at Gotha, 1826.

[l] According to a decree of the month of July, 1824, Sicily is governed by the same laws the other Neapolitan states.

materials are, raw silk, averaging, one year with another, not less than 180,000*l.*, different sorts of wines, among others, those of Syracuse and Marsala, of which, the quantity exported to Boston, exceeds two thousand tuns, and the value, 29,000*l.*; in addition to these articles, may be mentioned grain, to the amount of 372,000*l.*, a quantity, much less considerable than in ancient times, when Sicily and Sardinia were the *granaries of the Roman people;* fruits, that are sold for 80,000*l.*, olive oil, equal in value to 84,000*l.*, soda, that the people export to Marseilles, and the produce of the tunny fisheries, yielding 15,000*l.* Sicily carries on, besides, a trade in mercury, sulphur, alum, nitre, and rock salt. Such are the only sources of wealth, and they may be mentioned to the disgrace, rather than to the credit of the Sicilian government. Although there is not a more fertile soil in Europe, not a fourth part of the surface is cultivated; treasures are contained in the depths of the earth; but its gold, silver, copper, iron, and lead mines, have been long neglected. The gypsum, with which Sicily abounds, might be used in building, it is also valuable as a manure, it might even form an article of exportation, but the inhabitants derive no advantage from it.

Improvements.

If agriculture, industry, and commerce, were encouraged, Sicily might contain, as in the time of the Romans, three times the number of its present population. But many obstacles must be removed before it can attain such a degree of prosperity; the nobility must show an example of disinterestedness, that can hardly be expected from their character and habits. The indolent and slothful would suffer from the change, for the number of monks ought to be diminished. There are no manufactories in the island; it would be of advantage to establish some in the different convents, as their number is out of all proportion to that of the inhabitants. Twenty-eight thousand monks, and eighteen thousand nuns, in all forty-six thousand, are contained in a population of one million six hundred and fifty thousand individuals, which gives one recluse for every thirty-five inhabitants. The secular clergy might not, perhaps, be averse to such a reform, for they are said to be tolerant, from which it may be inferred that they are enlightened and well informed. They possess a third part of the land; but their influence depends as much on their knowledge as on their wealth.

Nobles.

The nobles, still more wealthy, possess almost all the rest of the country; they are composed of a hundred and twenty princes, eighty dukes, a hundred and forty marquises, thirty counts, three hundred and sixty barons, and a great many knights, who are also included in the aristocracy. The abolition of their privileges has tended to diminish their revenue; but they may imitate the Russian nobles, and add to their riches by building manufactories, and encouraging agriculture, which might be done without difficulty, in a country where nature invites man to labour by repaying him a hundredfold.

Roads.

Sicily, from its situation between Europe and Africa, might easily be rendered the most commercial island in the Mediterranean; but, before such a change can take place, good roads must be substituted for rugged and inconvenient paths; so long as there is no other road in the island, than the one between Montreale and Alcamo, the difficulties of communication are likely to prevent every improvement in agriculture. Land yields at least four per cent. to the proprietor; he advances the seed to the farmer, who returns it after harvest, and pays his rent in produce, according to the rates that are determined in every parish.

Climate.

While an eternal winter reigns on the summits of Ætna, the rest of Sicily enjoys a perpetual spring. In April, Reaumur's thermometer may be about seventeen degrees in the shade at noon; but when the sirocco blows, the same thermometer rises to thirty-five or thirty-six degrees. The other southern winds, or the *Libecchio*, from the south-

west, and *Austral* from the south, are more or less accompanied with unwholesome effects of the sirocco. The months of November and December are mild; people seek the shade in January, but the cold winds of March compel the Sicilians to have recourse to their portable fires.

Agriculture. The Sicilian wheat grows to an extraordinary height; the ears seldom contain less than sixty grains; both the grains and the straw are of a gold or bright yellow colour, by which they may be distinguished from the wheat of other countries. The finest crops in France or England, present to the Sicilian the image of sterility, so much do his own exhibit that of abundance. The aloe rises to the height of thirty feet; most of the roads are lined with the *Cactus opuntia*, and its purple fruit, in shape not unlike a fig, serves as food for the poor. The water melons are, perhaps, finer than in any other country in Europe. The fruits of the date tree arrive at maturity; their sweet juice forms a seasoning for certain dishes, or they are dried, and served on the tables of the wealthy and the burgesses. The pomegranate, brought from Carthage into Italy by the Romans, who gave it the name of *punica*, yields a vinous and acid juice, very agreeable to the people in the south of Europe. The sugar cane is indigenous to the coast opposite Africa, and the coffee shrub has been discovered in a wild state on the same part of the island. So great a variety of plants, in addition to those of northern climates, might tempt the indolent Sicilian to bestow more attention on agriculture.

Messina. Messina is situated nearer the Calabrian coast than any other town in Sicily. It was founded, according to the common opinion, ten centuries before the vulgar era. The Siculi, says Thucydides, called it *Zanclé*, from a word which, in their language, signifies a pruning hook, probably on account of the crooked form of its harbour.[m] Three or four centuries after its foundation, Anaxilas, the chief of the Messenian colony at Reggio, defeated the Zancliæ, took possession of their town, and gave it the name of *Massana* or *Messene*. It was taken at a later period by the *Mamertini*, a people of Campania. The town was wholly destroyed by the earthquake that happened in 1783; although it has since been declared a free port, Messina is not so important as it once was; it contained, before the last catastrophe, a hundred thousand inhabitants; the present population does not amount to seventy thousand.

It rises in the form of an amphitheatre at the base of the mountains, of which, the branches extend across the island, forming, in our opinion, the continuation of the Appenines. The sides of these heights are intersected by ravines, they are covered with a thousand varied plants, that rise above the palaces of Messina. The agitated waters of Charybdis and Scylla, the terror of ancient navigators, are seen under the walls of the city. Built on even ground, Messina may be about six thousand yards in extent; a promontory of rocks and sand protrudes in the form of a semicircle, and

Port. affords a spacious and safe anchorage for ships. A large citadel, several forts and batteries, defend the entrance into its harbour, which may be considered one of the finest in the Mediterranean. The streets are broad and regular; they are paved with large pieces of lava. The well-built quays are lined with low houses, probably that less danger may accrue in the event of earthquakes. Four or five large but irregular squares or piazzas, may be remarked, rather for the profusion than the taste or selection of their ornaments; they are all decorated with marble fountains and bronze statues of ordinary workmanship. The royal palace, in point of architecture, the finest building in the town, is not yet finished. The churches may vie with others in Italy, in the number of their paintings and images, which are placed together without much judgment. The

[m] Strabo corroborates the opinion of Thucydides; see book vi. chap. 3. § 5. Thus, it might be easy to prove the Greek origin of the Siculi; for the Greek word *zaglé*, which was pronounced *zanclé*, signifies also a scythe or pruning hook.

m dral, built by Count Roger, is decorated with twenty-six columns of ptian granite, and they have a very singular effect near Gothic orna- ts of the thirteenth century.

he people are ill educated in Messina; few among the lower ers can read, and still fewer among the nobles are well in- ned. The different places of education, are a royal college and six ituitous schools, two of which are reserved for young nobles; there are, sides, a seminary for four hundred pupils, and forty-six convents for en or women. Among other institutions, may be mentioned a bank, veral mounts of piety, a lazzaretto and a large hospital. | Places of education, &c.

Taormina stands on a hill near the shore, about twelve leagues to the south-west of Messina. Although not peopled by more than three thousand inhabitants, it contains a great many churches and convents. The Roman way that leads to it, and the vast remains of a theatre, may prove it to be the *Tauromínium* of the Romans, formerly a considerable town, which Arabs and earthquakes have more than once destroyed. The edifice already mentioned, the most remarkable of any in Taormina, is more than two hundred feet in diameter, and it serves to give the moderns a correct idea of ancient theatres; although of so great dimensions, the space allotted to the actors was only a few feet in depth, not more than the space in modern theatres between the curtain and the orchestra. The sculptures that adorned the theatre, now decorate monasteries; their profane origin was no protection against the pious zeal of the Norman princes. | Taormina.

The river Cantara, that still retains the name of *Alcantarà*, which was given it by the Arabs, separates the plain that commands Taormina from the last declivities of Ætna or *Gibel*, a name also of Arabic origin, and one that signifies a mountain. A pyramidical rock forms the summit of the great volcano, of which the crater is more than a league in circumference, and seven hundred feet in depth. Many strangers have visited it, but few have ever reached its frozen summit, so much do the difficulties and dangers increase, after the first regions of snow are past.[a] Not many years ago an English traveller, who reached the crater, was rash enough to descend it, by means of ropes attached to his waist; he was drawn up after having given the signal to his guides, but they were unable to restore him to life.[b] The lava and scoriæ of Ætna, are as useful in fructifying the ground, as the same substances on Vesuvius; thus, the base of Ætna, which some writers consider equal to a hundred leagues in circumference, affords the means of subsistence to a hundred and eighty thousand inhabitants. | Ætna.

The plants in the same part of Sicily reach to an extraordinary size; near the volcanic promontory of Aci, a place connected with the fable of Acis and Galatea, old chesnut trees, the silent witnesses of political revolutions and natural convulsions, extend to a great | Gigantic chesnut trees.

[a] The silence of Homer concerning the fires of Ætna, render it probable it was in the same state in his time, as Vesuvius was in the time of Strabo. The number of its eruptions from the age of history to the present day amounts to eighty-one; namely,

From the time of Thucydides to the year 481 before Christ	3
In the year 122 before Christ	1
In the year 44 of the vulgar era	1
Do. 252	1
During the twelfth century	2
During the thirteenth	1
During the fourteenth	2
During the fifteenth	4
During the sixteenth	4
During the seventeenth	22
During the eighteenth	32
Since the commencement of the nineteenth	8

[b] Manuel du voyageur en Sicile, by M. le comte Karacsay.

distance their wide spreading branches. One of them is twenty-four feet in diameter, another is fifteen, but the most remarkable of any, and one that many consider a sufficient inducement for strangers to go out of their way to examine, is the *Castagno dei cento cavalli*, not an inaccurate designation, for according to M. Simond, a hundred horses may find shelter under its shade; the circumference is not less than a hundred and twelve feet.[p]

Catania.

Catania, or Catane, the ancient *Catana*, is situated at the base of Ætna, on the sea-shore; it was founded seven centuries before the vulgar era, but it has been often destroyed by lava and earthquakes, and it does not cover at present more than a fourth part of the surface which it occupied, when Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, changed its name into Ætna, and peopled it with new inhabitants. The town is large and well built; its fine edifices, which render it not unlike Turin, are so many proofs, not of its prosperity, but rather of its misfortunes; for in Catania houses never become old, they give way either to lava or volcanic shocks. It is to the earthquakes of 1693 and 1783, that it owes its magnificence; almost wholly destroyed, it was rebuilt with greater regularity. Most of its edifices have been since injured by the shocks of 1819. The cathedral is one of the finest; the walls of the sacristy are covered with fresco paintings, which represent the ravages of the eruption in 1669; during that period, a torrent of lava, a league in breadth, was accumulated behind the walls of the town, which are more than sixty feet high, but the burning stream flowed over them into Catana, crossed the city, and formed a lofty mole in the sea, which adds at present to the safety of the harbour. The people, however, are persuaded that the town owes its preservation to St. Agatha, the tutelar saint of Catania, who suffered martyrdom in the same place, under the reign of *Decius*. It is true, that they attribute to their own sins, the misfortunes which the protection of the saint cannot avert.

Convent of the Benedictines.

The convent, or rather palace of the Benedictines, forms a striking contrast, by its magnificent architecture, with the simplicity that is so well adapted to a house of devotion. The monastery may be considered a museum of the antiquities that have been discovered in the neighbourhood; it possesses besides several valuable paintings, a collection of natural history, a large library, and gardens, made at much expense, on a volcanic bed.

Antiquities.

A great many antiquities are contained in the Biscari museum, which was founded by a wealthy noble of the same name, who spent his fortune in exploring or digging for antiquities in the territory of Catania. The ancient theatre and amphitheatre, the old walls, baths and temples were buried under several layers of lava and alluvial deposites, that were removed by the same individual; lastly, the town is indebted to him for several ancient statues and a basaltic elephant, carrying an Egyptian obelisk on its back.

University.

Although the religious houses in Catania are richly endowed, sufficient funds are not wanting for the university. The professors are distinguished by their attainments; and their classes are attended by five hundred students; those among the nobles, who are educated in the same institution, are in general well informed. A convent in the town, serves as a residence for the knights of Malta, whose predecessors were for a long time the terror of the Crescent.

Industry and commerce.

The territory of Catania produces plenty of corn, wine, lint, olives, and silk. Much amber, and some pieces of a bright red colour, are collected on the coast, near the mouth of the Giaretta, formerly the Simæthus, a river celebrated by ancient poets. These pro-

[p] Simond's Travels in Italy.

ducts maintain the industry and commerce of the town; the inhabitants carry on a trade in olive oil, some manufacture linen and silk stuffs, while others are employed in making amber crosses and chaplets.

The road from Catania to Syracuse is not nearly so good as the one from Messina to Catania; indeed, the former extends along the sand, on the sea-shore. But the Phrygian bonnet, still worn by the inhabitants, recalls some associations, not without interest; and the traveller passes through a country embellished by the brilliant fictions of the Greeks. The banks of the Simæthus are still covered with the fragrant flowers which Proserpine gathered, before she was carried away by Pluto, the god of hell and of Ætna, who shared with her his empire.

Syracuse.

The fountain of Arethusa issues from a rock near the ancient Syracuse, which the Greeks called *Pentapolis* from its five quarters; the fountain serves to recall the story of the nymph Arethusa, flying from Alpheus, but her metamorphosis availed her little, for the ancients supposed that the Alpheus passed under the sea, and united his streams with the Arethusa; a notion sufficiently poetical, but contrary to physical geography, by which the impossibility of such a subterranean communication may be easily demonstrated.[1] The fountain which Cicero describes as *incredibili magnitudine* and *plenissimus piscium*, can no longer be recognised, it is a small and narrow stream, where the women of modern Syracuse are employed in washing clothes. The modern town does not cover a suburbs of the ancient city, the latter did not long survive the decline of Athens. Syracuse is built on the island that the ancients called *Nasos;* the circumference of the town, including the large and small harbour, is hardly equal to a league, while that of the ancient city amounted to nearly eight.

Catacombs.

Some idea may be formed of its great population in past times, from the extent of its catacombs; they are situated on the plain where the old church of St. John stands at present; and they are cut in a sort of sandy limestone. Long and regular galleries, extending in every direction, are interrupted at different distances by large circular halls, covered with stucco, and open at the roof so as to admit the light and the air. Niches and tombs are hollowed on the sides, and in some of them, twenty coffins placed one above another, were found; and pieces of money, the fare for the ferrymen of Acheron, have been observed near several skeletons. It was in the same place that Cicero discovered the tomb of Archimedes.

One may still trace the enclosure or outer wall, which Dionysius built round the town, and examine the remains of a large theatre and amphitheatre, cut in the rock.

The Ear of Dionysius.

The celebrated prison, called *the Ear of Dionysius*, is not a building but a cavern, perhaps the quarry out of which old Syracuse was built; its form is most favourable to the repercussion of sound, high, narrow, pointed above, and presenting a singular curve in its horizontal depth. It is so sonorous that Dionysius might have placed himself near the opening above it, and heard whatever the prisoners said in a whisper. The tearing of a piece of paper makes a noise not unlike that occasioned by knocking a heavy stick against a stone; some notion may thus be formed of the effect produced by the discharging of a pistol, an experiment with which the *ciceroni* are not unwilling to gratify strangers.

Modern.

Modern Syracuse has been much injured by earthquakes; the one that happened in 1693, did not last more than four minutes, but it destroyed almost all the houses, and a fourth part of the inhabitants. Although now an insignificant town, it possesses a theatre and a very valuable museum, in which may be seen a statue of Venus

[1] Strabo refutes triumphantly the common opinion that existed in his time concerning the junction of the Alpheus and Arethusa.

Kallipyge, supposed to be the one described by Athaneus, and given to the Syracusans by the emperor Heliogabalus. The cathedral or the ancient temple of Minerva, was transformed into a church, about the end of the second century; its most precious ornament is a Madonna of solid silver, as large as life; the lady appears in a robe covered with diamonds and other precious stones, on solemn occasions, such as the day of an annual visit, which she makes in procession and with much ceremony, to another Madonna in the neighbourhood.

Mount Laura, which rises to the west of Syracuse, is one of the highest in the three chains that traverse Sicily.

Other towns. | *Calatagirone*, an industrious and commercial town, is situated on the southern side of the same chain, at a considerable elevation; the inhabitants are engaged in commerce, agriculture and the useful arts. It contains many churches and priests, convents and monks, a royal college and several hospitals. Two or three fairs are held every year in the town; and according to different authors, the population amounts to nineteen thousand six hundred inhabitants, but it is not improbable that the number has been overrated. It stands on the site of *Hybla Minima* or *Heræa*, as it is called in the itinerary of Antonine. A bad road passes through Calatagirone from Catania to *Castro-Giovani*, a town of eleven thousand souls, which, from its position on a hill, and from some remains of antiquity, was probably the ancient *Enna*, a place mentioned by Strabo; within its walls, about a hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, slaves revolted, and maintained a long and obstinate siege against the Romans. The neighbouring country was and is still very fruitful in corn. Ceres had a magnificent temple in the town, which was styled the capital of her dominions; at no great distance from it may be seen the grotto, by which Pluto returned to the infernal regions, and took Proserpine along with him.

Girgenti. | A road from Castro-Giovani leads to Girgenti, but by following the course of the Salso, one may reach Alicata, a town of twelve thousand inhabitants, protected by two forts, and well known in Sicily for its pastry and macaroni. The harbour, although small, is much frequented, and the ruins on mount Serrato, in the neighbourhood, are, according to some antiquaries, the remains of Gela, the birth-place of the poet Apollodorus, of the philosopher Timagoras, and the tyrant Gelo. At a short distance from the same place may be seen the tomb of Eschyles.

Girgenti, of which the streets rise like steps one above another, on the highest mountain near the coast, is a dirty, ill-built, and by no means a commercial town. It possesses an orphan hospital, a lyceum with a library and a collection of medals; it contains also an academy, an Episcopal palace, forty-six churches and fifteen monasteries, although its population does not exceed fifteen thousand souls. It rises on the site of the citadel that Dedalus built at the request of king Cocalus, to defend *Agrigentum*. The ruins of the ancient city are situated at a mile and a half to the south-east of *Girgenti-Vecchio*. Several convents rise within its enclosure, which consisted of rocks cut in the form of walls. *Agrigentum*, which Strabo calls *Acragas*, from the name of the stream that watered it, was founded six hundred years before the vulgar era; Amilcar destroyed it two hundred years afterwards; having been rebuilt, it was taken by the Romans. The population amounted to two hundred thousand souls, and at comparatively so late a period as the year 941, it was a considerable town, when the Arabs or Saracens laid it in ruins. If the inhabitants were unable to resist their enemies, it was owing to their luxury and effeminacy. The long tyranny of Phalaris, his cruel and dreadful tortures, compelled them at last to shake off the yoke. While Carthage was in its splendour, the people of Agrigentum were menaced with an attack from that naval power. The magistrates decreed that the citizens in rotation should watch the

ramparts during the night; and in order that the service might not be attended with too much inconvenience, every man on duty was permitted to have a tent, a woollen covering, and two pillows. The citizens were unwilling to submit to the labour, and the decree occasioned much discontent. The philosopher Empedocles, who perished in the crater of Ætna, was born at Agrigentum; he taught his countrymen to eat and to make merry, as if they were to die the next day, and to erect temples and edifices, as if they were to live for ever. The public buildings were magnificent; strangers admire the temple of Concord, which, with the exception of the roof, is still entire, the others, for their ruins exist at present, are the temples of Castor and Pollux, Juno-Lucina, the Olympian Jupiter, Ceres and Proserpine, Hercules, Apollo, and Diana.

It may be superfluous to mention the towns in the interior of Sicily; all the industry of the country is concentrated in the different places on the coast, and it is there too that the stranger finds subjects for meditation, in the historical recollections connected with them. Timoleon, at the head of six thousand Syracusans, defeated an army of seventy thousand Carthaginians near the *Platani* and *Calatabellota*, a river twelve leagues in length, and honoured by the ancients with the pompous title of *Crimisus*. An arid plain beyond it, extends to the sea-shore, where the town of *Sciacca* rises; its wretched appearance is by so much the more remarkable, as it contains twelve thousand inhabitants, and because great quantities of grain are exported to foreign countries from its harbour. Few vestiges of Selinuns (*Thermæ Selinuntiæ*,) now remain, a town celebrated in ancient times for its warm springs, for its fine earthenware, incorrectly denominated Etruscan, and also as being the birth-place of Agathocles, who, from a potter, rose by his talent to the throne of Syracuse. Selinuns was situated in the territory of Castel Vetrano, on the right bank of the Belici, but the ruins of ancient temples and other edifices, that the inhabitants call the *Giant's Pillars* (*Le Pilieri de Giganti*,) are all that remain of the ancient town. The tempest, says a traveller, sometimes sweeps away the deposites which now cover the port of Selinuns, and reveals, for a few seconds, quays, columns and rings, that the billows conceal anew under a moveable sand.[r]

Mazzara.

Innumerable lizards frisk about the ruins, the aloe sends up its tapering shoot, and the wide spreading opuntia covers them with its shade. A deserted but fruitful plain, extends beyond them to Mazzara, a town peopled by eight thousand inhabitants. Marsala is situated on the other side of a hill, near the sea-shore; the neighbouring country is famous for its wines, the plants were originally imported from Madeira. The town stands near the ruins of *Lilybeum*, a Carthaginian city that maintained a five years siege against the Romans; in the same place, according to Livy, the Carthaginians kept a garrison of ten thousand men, after the ruin of Carthage. *Trapani*, an agreeable town to the north of Marsala, stands on a peninsula at no great distance from the site of the ancient *Drepanum*. The islands of Favignano, Levanzo, and Maretino may be seen from its ramparts. It was near these islands that the consul Cladius Pulcher was defeated in a naval engagement by the Carthaginians; before the engagement, the consul ordered the sacred chickens to be thrown into the sea; exclaiming, let them drink if they will not eat; but on the same coast, Caius Lutatius gained a victory over the same people, which enabled the Romans to make themselves masters of Sicily.

Ruins of Segesta.

The sterile country between Trapani and Alcamo may render the stranger better prepared to contemplate one of the finest ancient monuments, all that remains from Egesta or Segesta, celebrated for the temple of the Erycinian Venus; the town situated on a height at

[r] M. le Compte Fedor de Karaczay.

the base of mount Eryx, was deserted and almost in ruins at so early a period as the time of Strabo.[s] All the travellers who have examined the temple are unanimous in its commendation. The effect it produced at a distance, says M. Simond, increased as I approached. Such is the magic of its proportions, and the beauty of its forms, that at whatever side it may be viewed, it is equally admirable. It has braved the influence of time, the edifice stands entire, columns, entablature, pediment, all except the cellar and roof, which have disappeared. The columns of the Ionic order are about seven feet in diameter at the base, tapering towards the top, and only four diameters in height, but they form with the front a total height of fifty-eight feet. The dimensions of the interior are about a hundred and seventy-four feet by seventy-two; six pillars support the front, and fourteen each of the sides.[t]

Alcamo. The country round Alcamo is fruitful and romantic; the name of the town indicates its Arabian origin; it was founded in the year 828, by Alkamah, a Saracen prince. When seen from the heights that rise above it, its towers and its walls give it the appearance of a Moorish town. The women have preserved the eastern costume; they never walk on the streets without being covered with a large black mantle, that conceals part of the face. The town contains thirteen thousand inhabitants, and most of them adore their Madonna, which has already performed unnumbered miracles; indeed the people maintain that there is not a better Madonna in all Sicily.

Montreale. *Montreale* or *Morreale*, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, is also situated on a hill. The church and the convent of Benedictines, which were founded in the twelfth century by the Norman prince William the Good, served as a nucleus for the town; houses were at different periods grouped around them. The abbot of the monastery has the title and the rank of an archbishop, the monks of Mount Cassino form his chapter. The church was much injured by a fire in 1811; its principal entrance is formed by a bronze portal covered with reliefs, the columns are of granite, the walls incrusted with mosaics, and the pavement consists of porphyry and different coloured marbles; within the same building are contained the same mausoleums of William the Good, and his father William the Bad. The convent is adorned with an admirable painting by Pietro Novelli, the Sicilian Raphael.

Palermo. An excellent road leads from Montreale to Palermo, country houses are scattered in the neighbourhood, arid rocks, rising apparently from the sea, are heaped above each other in a fruitful valley, covered in some places with the spiry aloe and the cactus. Palm trees and tall bamboos wave their verdant tops in the air, and the light breeze that agitates the corn fields, enlarges the undulating surface. The bright foliage of the orange and lemon trees, the smooth branches of the olive, the large leaved vine and the graceful rose laurel, form a varied landscape of the richest verdure.

The capital of Sicily, the ancient *Panormus*, a town founded by the Phenicians, now encompassed with walls, rises in a form of the circle on a gulf. It appears smaller than it really is; two streets which intersect each other transversally, divide it into four nearly equal parts. The breadth of these streets may be about forty or forty-five feet, and the length from twelve hundred to fourteen hundred paces. One of the streets, the Cassaro, derives its name from the Arabian word *Cassar*, which signifies a palace; the other is called the Macqueda or *Strada Nuova*. The place where the two streets cross each other, forms an octagonal court; at no great distance from it, is situated the Pretorian court, which is much larger. A fountain

[s] Book sixth, chapter iii. § 8. [t] See Simond's Travels, and also the Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, by the Count Fedor de Karaczay.

loaded with ornaments, and of such dimensions that the eye cannot embrace the whole, rises from the centre of the last court; it consists of several basins placed above each other, and separated by galleries covered with statues and animals, that throw out the water in different directions. The piazza of Bologni is adorned with an equestrian statue of Charles the Fifth, king of Sicily, the best work of Volsi, a Sicilian sculptor. The gates of the town are shut at night; the two finest are the *Porta Felice*, a triumphal arch which forms the entrance from the harbour into Palermo, and the Porta Nuova at the extremity of the Cassaro, and contiguous to the royal palace. The architecture of the last building is by no means creditable to the good taste of the Palermitans; constructed at different periods, the different parts are not in harmony with each other. The most remarkable part of the edifice is the chapel built by king Roger in 1129; and it too is only remarkable for its grotesque paintings, its coarse mosaics, and an architecture in which the Gothic and the Grecian style of the middle ages are united. The highest part of the palace, or the observatory was finished in 1791; it was there that the celebrated Abbé Piazzi discovered in 1801, the planet which he called Ceres. The oldest fresco painting in Europe may be seen on the walls of the large hospital, it was finished in the fourth century;[a] the triumph of death forms the subject, one that cannot be very consolatory to the patients who are confined in the hospital.

Vicaria.

The vicaria or court of justice, is at once the tribunal and the prison; the guilty and innocent, criminals and accused, are confined together, and remain sometimes ten or fifteen years before the court condemns or acquits them. "I shall give an example," says M. Simond, "of the manner in which the prisons are filled, as I am sure of the fact. A few months ago, two men were quarrelling on the street with knives in their hands, when a third person interfering, was stabbed, and the murderers fled. The *sbirri*, who happened to be at hand, seized three of the bystanders, and conducted them to prison, where they are now detained, without any evidence whatsoever against them; and unless they have powerful friends or money, they may remain there half their lives. In the meantime, no measures have been taken to bring the real murderers to justice." An epidemy lately carried off eighty individuals in confinement. The original cause of detention, often trifling, is forgotten, witnesses are gone away, nobody thinks of prosecuting; it is hopeless for a prisoner to expect a trial, he may look forward to a jail delivery, to which an arbitrary government has sometimes recourse, when the prisons are too full. The indifference as to the fate of prisoners, encourages the powerful to persecute and oppress the poor. The number of prisoners amounted to seventeen hundred in the year 1818. The prisons in a country nine times more populous than the province of Palermo, those under the jurisdiction of the royal court at Paris, did not contain at the same period thirteen hundred persons.

Useful institutions.

Several articles of considerable value have lately been added to the museums of antiquities and medals; and the paintings, which are now collecting in the galleries of the university, are likely to be of use to those who devote themselves to the fine arts.

Moorish palaces.

Two edifices of Moorish architecture are situated in the suburbs of Palermo; the one is the palace of Ziza, the property of an individual, and the other, the palace of Cuba, which has been changed into barracks for cavalry; they were built by an emir, who called them after the names of his two daughters. The town contains, besides twenty-seven principal churches and several others of a smaller size, sixty-seven convents, five hospitals, eight charity schools, an academy, three public libraries, four barracks, two theatres, and two mounts of piety.

[a] Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, &c.

Cathedral. The *Duomo* or cathedral, one of the finest Gothic monuments in Sicily, was founded in the year 1166; it may bear a comparison with the most magnificent buildings in Cardova and Grenada; but the interior, although profusely adorned, does not correspond with the exterior; marble, granite, jasper, alabaster and lapis lazuli are lavished in the same way as in other Italian churches. Next to the cathedral, the church of Jesus is the most remarkable, not only for its architecture, but for its precious ornaments, its paintings and basso relievos.

Caverns of the Capuchins. The catacombs cut in the rocks below the church of the capuchins, possess the singular property of converting into mummies the bodies that are deposited in them. The dead, placed upright in niches, are sumptuously attired; their arms hang downwards, or are crossed on the breast. The nobles attach much importance to this method of sepulture, and purchase very dearly the right of obtaining it, indeed the revenue that the capuchins thus derive, forms the principal source of their wealth. On certain festivals, these bodies are clothed in gorgeous apparel; relatives, friends, perhaps lovers are then admitted to see those who were dear to them. But the magnificent dresses of the dead form surely a painful contrast with their shrivelled skin,—the contracted lip no longer concealing the teeth, the disagreeable grimace on some countenances, the smile on others, as if they looked in pity or contempt on the vain grandeur and fleeting pleasures of the world.

Saint Rosalia. Palermo boasts of having been the birth place of St. Agatha, who received the palm of martyrdom in the third century; the same town claims the honour of having given birth to another personage in the legend, to another object of veneration to a credulous people. A Sicilian poet places St. Rosalia above all the saints in paradise, nay more, above the Virgin herself. According to tradition, she was the niece of William the Good; at fifteen years of age, she renounced the world, lived in complete solitude, and died unknown. While the plague depopulated the town in 1624, a hermit declared that he had seen a vision, in which God revealed to him a cavern on Mount Pelegrino, where the bones of St. Rosalia were to be found; these bones, it was necessary to carry in procession round the walls of Palermo, in order that their sacred virtue might drive away the plague. No one, until that period, ever heard of St. Rosalia, no one knew that such a person ever existed. It was rather too much to expect that her remains could be found five centuries after her death. The magistrates paid little attention to the story of the visionary, but the people believed it, and to satisfy them, a deputation of monks, with the hermit at their head, was sent to the cavern. The bones were found, and the plague in the course of time disappeared. The remains of St. Rosalia are now enclosed in a magnificent shrine on the very place from which they were first removed, and to which pilgrims from Italy and every part of Sicily resort.

Festival of St. Rosalia. A festival that commences on the fifteenth of July, lasts several days, and those who have seen it, affirm that there is a greater display of pomp and pageantry on these occasions than during the holy week at Rome. The shrine of St. Rosalia is then carried in procession through the streets of Palermo. Fifty-six mules richly caparisoned are attached to an immense vehicle seventy feet long, thirty broad and eighty high, containing a numerous orchestra, and adorned with orange trees, shrubs and flowers. The holy chariot, if it may be so called, terminates in a dome, supported by six Corinthian pillars, and beneath it is placed the gigantic statue of St. Rosalia, which consists of massive silver. The saint with her numerous suit and her guard of cavalry, return home in the evening, when every house is illumined, when every priest or monk that accompanies her, holds a lighted torch in his hand. Fire works are then discharged from every part of the town, and the corso is crowded

with carriages from midnight until two o'clock. Horse races commence on the morning of the second day; in the forenoon the saint and her retinue pass through different parts of the town, in the evening the same illuminations are renewed, and the fire works are more brilliant; the same amusements are continued during the third day. There are three races on the fourth, and the cathedral is lighted in the evening with thirty thousand wax tapers. Lastly, the saint is accompanied with a very numerous procession, on the fifth day, for all the priests and monks in the town must attend; they pass round the Pretorian court, and the fountain is changed in an instant into a fountain of fire.

The festival attracts to Palermo nearly a fourth part of the population of the island, and costs the municipality about sixty thousand ducats. The interests that the Palermitans of all ranks and all ages take in the vain show, the luxury that prevails, the importance attached to trifles, seem to indicate that the blood of the ancient Greeks, who were so devoted to ceremonies and religious festivals, flows still in the veins of the Sicilian people.

Walks.

The finest public walk, or the *Marina*, as it is called, extends along the sea-shore, and leads to the Flora, a large garden tastefully planted, and kept up with much care; it communicates with a botanical garden, containing upwards of four thousand exotic plants. The fine edifice in the centre of the last garden, the work of a French architect,[x] is now set apart for lectures on botany and natural history.

Neighbourhood.

The Gulf of Palermo cannot be compared with the Gulf of Naples; mountains scorched by a burning sun, proclaim the vicinity of Africa. Mount Pelegrino, the *Eveta* of the Romans, is the highest of any that rise like an amphitheatre round the town; their sides are adorned with gardens and country houses, in the midst of which may be remarked the *Favorita*, a royal park, stocked with an innumerable quantity of hares and pheasants. The position that Antonine assigns in his itinerary to *Hyccara*, a town mentioned by Thucydides and Plutarch, is sufficient to prove that the present village of Carini stands on the site of the ancient city, the birth-place of Lais, the celebrated courtezan. The wretched town of Termini, well known in Sicily for a wealthy convent of Benedictines, built by Pope St. Gregory, is situated on the coast near the site of Himera, a town founded six hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, by a colony sent from Messina or Zancle. Gelo defeated Amilcar under its walls, but his defeat was avenged by Hannibal, who razed the town, and put its inhabitants to the sword. The other towns and villages on the coast, are too insignificant to require notice. Melazzo, built on a promontory at eight leagues from Messina, is the ancient *Mylæ*, where the Romans gained the first naval victory over the Carthaginians.

Islands.

The islands round Sicily may now be mentioned in order to complete the account of the Neapolitan States. Oppidolo, the chief town in *Pentallaria*, an island on the south-east, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The burgh of Santa Maria, a place defended by a fortress, contains the greater part of the population in Ustica, which lies to the north of the Gulf of Palermo. Alicudi or Alicuri, an island somewhat smaller than the last, does not contain more than two hundred and fifty individuals. Salina, which has been already mentioned, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants. The population of Lipari amounts to eighteen thousand; the town of the same name is fortified, and the island produces excellent muscadine wine. Two hundred inhabitants reside in Panaria, the ancient *Didyme*. Stromboli is the ancient *Strongyle*, its fruitful and volcanic soil did not contain more than two hundred inhabitants about twenty-five years ago, but at present, more than two thousand are collected in a single town. The other islands dependent on Sicily are not inhabited.

[x] M. Dufourny.

Character of the inhabitants. Manners.

The climate of Sicily exerts its influence, not only on the physical, but moral character of its inhabitants. The Sicilians are gay, lively, and intellectual, of ardent imaginations and impetuous passions; the same people are generous, hospitable, and faithful observers of their word. But neither are their good qualities improved, nor their bad passions subdued by education. A man commits murder, not from covetousness, but from vengeance. To avenge one's self is by all considered a right, by many a duty. The lower orders in Sicily do not submit to injuries so tamely as the people of Naples; the higher classes never venture to strike their inferiors; a blow, says M. Simond, might be repaid with a stab. Although they pass their time in indolence, their mental activity puts them in possession of many resources; indeed if they were well educated, they might perhaps be superior to the people of any other country. But they are kept in ignorance; influential men consider knowledge a fatal or dangerous present; it is supposed to make the people discontented, not familiar with the moral truths that are so closely connected with those of religion.

Elementary education, by diffusing the use of writing, might introduce a love of order and economy among the lower ranks, enable them to profit by the perusal of the books within their reach, dispose them to consider their engagements to the state, and their other duties, more obligatory, and render the husbandman and the artisan better able to inform themselves in their respective departments of industry. What danger can result from such changes in the manners and habits of the people? The bulwarks that defend the palace against popular tumults, are not impregnable; a well informed person capable of respecting the laws, may be more easily kept within the limits of a reasonable obedience, than another who knows only the sovereignty of force, the submission that results from fear.

Religion.

We have attempted to describe the fondness of the people for religious festivals. The Sicilians require a worship that addresses itself to the senses, they must have flowers, perfumes, noisy music and images; incapable of receiving Christianity in its native purity, they introduced the machinery of polytheism into the religion of Jesus. The national vanity, which is common to the Sicilians with their ancestors, makes them suppose themselves superior to other people, and the same sentiment produces some degree of jealousy between the different towns. Athens and Lacedemon claimed political supremacy, and Messina does not yield to Palermo the title of capital.

Peasantry.

The Sicilians are exemplary for their sobriety; in that virtue at least they are not inferior to the ancient Spartans. Some customs of the Greeks are still preserved among the peasantry; thus, the shepherds choose a judge to hear their songs, and to award the prize to him who deserves it. The country women retain the Greek costume, the long veil and the wide cincture.

Society.

Conversazione are as general in Sicily as in Italy; people meet in each others houses, or in public places to which they subscribe; in the latter, rooms are set apart for the purpose of conversation, and other apartments for those who consider gambling more attractive. But what appears very strange, a lady in confinement never fails to hold a *conversazione*, and, the day after delivery, all her friends repair to her chamber. The pains by which women purchase the pleasure of being mothers, are not felt in Sicily, an advantage that nature has bestowed on warm climates.

Sicily has given birth to distinguished writers; and their works form frequently a subject for criticism or conversation to the present Sicilians. Poetry is the language of love and gallantry, there is not a tender swain that does not express the cruelty of his mistress in rhyme. Amorous intrigues are the pastimes of all the ladies; they never walk on the streets,

they are only seen in the theatre, at mass, or in their houses. They adopt, and often improve the French fashions, and they are perhaps as adroit as the Parisian ladies in heightening the effect of fine features and arch eyes. The women of Messina are pleasant and agreeable in their manners, at Palermo they are handsome, at Syracuse they are distinguished by the freshness of their complexion, at Trapani, one may discover the regularity of the Greek profile. In Naples the men are handsomer than the women, in Sicily the women are better looking than the men.

Corruption.

The principal sources of public corruption are an inextricable labyrinth of laws, a host of advocates and attorneys, encouraging, more than anywhere else, the mania for lawsuits. Justice is venal, and the judges do not blush to acknowledge it; the agents of government are the greatest smugglers, monks educate youth, and govern families, while their own conduct is not more exemplary than that of their predecessors in the sixteenth century.

Police.

Sicily was formerly as much infested with robbers as the Neapolitan territory is at present, and some parts in the island were emphatically styled dens of thieves. Such, however, is no longer the case, for strangers may travel without danger, from one end of the country to the other. Resolute *Capitanos*, appointed in each district, are chosen from the most influential proprietors. Each Capitano has a guard of fourteen horsemen, well mounted, well armed, and well paid, and it is the duty of their chief to enforce the law in his district, preserve the peace, and ensure the safety of the inhabitants, for which he is made responsible. The horsemen were originally selected from the most intrepid banditti, and they have performed their duty so well, that travelling is as safe in Sicily as in England.

Manner of counting the hours.

Strangers have some difficulty in understanding the manner of computing time in Sicily and in every part of Italy, except Turin, Parma and Florence. The first hour of the twenty-four, or the Ave Maria, begins half an hour after sunset; therefore, at the *equinox*, what is noon in the rest of Europe, is thirty minutes after seventeen in Italy; and it is one o'clock on the same day and in the same country at half past seven in the evening. One inconvenience attending the Italian method is, that the clocks must be regulated every day at noon, and advanced or retarded according as the days are becoming longer or shorter. The watches of the Italians are made in foreign countries, and the dials do not correspond with their mode of counting the hours, which, they maintain, has many advantages over the ordinary method.

Destinies of Italy.

Italy, once the country of flourishing colonies, the centre of the most formidable empire in ancient times, the theatre of the most powerful republics during the middle ages, has remained without influence and without glory, during the political changes to which Europe has in modern times been exposed. Divided into kingdoms and principalities of the second and third order, it is without any central point, every part is consequently vulnerable. During fourteen centuries, to conquer Italy was the ambition of princes beyond the Alps, and late events have too clearly proved that its different states may easily become the prey of an ambitious monarch. One or two victories enabled Napoleon to make himself master of the country. Had he secured its independence by giving it a chief, in place of dividing it into prefectures, governed under his influence by princes of his family, France and Italy might have resisted the coalition of Europe. Napoleon acknowledged his error, when it could not be repaired; what that emperor did not attempt, time, and the interests of Europe may perhaps accomplish. The influence of manners, religion, and language, tends to unite all the people in Italy; the intrigues of some princes, and the ambition of different powers, have hitherto prevented the union. The successive conquests of the greatest empire in Europe, may

at no distant period occasion reasonable alarm for the safety of western nations; in the event of any calamity, it might be well to secure the independence of Italy. Additional resources might be obtained in the alliance of a country possessing on a surface of 97,200 square miles, a population of 16,560,000 individuals. But if commerce and industry were encouraged, Italy might easily contain twenty-four millions, so great is the fertility of the soil, so great are the advantages of its climate. The Italian nation is defended by the Alps on the north, by the Appenines in the centre, and in other directions by the sea; it might add to the natural strength of its position by fortresses, strong holds and arsenals: it might maintain an imposing army, enlarge its ports, create a navy, avail itself of its islands to acquire a maritime superiority, and be raised to an equality with the greatest nations.

One of the present thrones in Italy may probably govern the whole country; but if the different states be excited to revolt by local interests or unforeseen causes, Italy may become a federative republic; Milan, Venice, Florence, Rome, Naples, Cagliari and Palermo might then be the seven principal towns in the New United States, participating, perhaps, at the extremity of the continent, in the wealth and prosperity that distinguish the American federation.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF ITALY.

Lombard Venetian Kingdom divided into two governments and seventeen delegations, *including forty-one Towns, a hundred and seventy-six Burghs, and five thousand four hundred and eighty-one Villages.*[a]

GOVERNMENT OF MILAN.

CAPITALS.	Population of the chief towns	Surface in German sq. miles.	Population of the delegations.	Population for every German square mile.
1. Sondrio . .	3,374	62,05	83,451	1,346
2. Como . .	7,669	60,61	335,060	5,761
3. Milan . .	124,647	47,90	463,477	9,861
4. Pavia . .	21,351	24,40	146,368	6,098
5. Lodi . .	14,882	34,10	197,532	5,809
6. Bergamo .	29,469	66,10	315,186	4,775
7. Brescia . .	32,911	57,80	323,738	5,679
8. Cremona .	26,876	22,60	175,815	7,991
9. Mantua . .	23,340	27,30	239,436	8,868
GOVERNMENT OF VENICE.				
10. Verona . .	60,000	68,40	277,849	4,086
11. Rovigo[b] . .	7,000	20,72	135,625	6,781
12. Padua . .	47,000	39,80	290,514	7,474
13. Vicenza . .	30,000	41,20	297,547	7,257
14. Belluno . .	8,000	61,90	122,840	2,013
15. Treviso . .	15,000	35,60	232,732	6,649
16. Venice . .	109,927	51,26	249,157	4,885
17. Udina[c] . .	18,000	130,20	350,974	2,699
Total superficies in German square miles, and average population for every German square mile.		851,94	4,237,301	4,979
Surface in square geographical leagues, and average population for each league.		2,368,39		1,789

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Italians	4,163,700
Germans	66,500
Jews	5,600
Greeks	700
Armenians	500
	4,237,000

[a] The above table indicates the population according to the census of 1825, contained in the Alpabetisch-topographisches, Postreise-Handbuch, published by M. Max. Fried. Thielen, Vienna, 1827.

[b] Metropolis of Polesino, an ancient province, now a delegation.

[c] Metropolis of Friuli.

Statistics of the Press, 1824.[d]

Volumes printed—Number of copies	1,040,500
Engravings and music—Number of copies	143,600

Periodical Works.

The Milan Gazette—Number of copies	1,900
Ladies' Courier	700
Royal Almanack	690
Law Bulletin	1,750

Besides these works, each delegation has its separate journal.

Scientific and Literary Journals.

At Milan	8
At Padua	1
At Treviso	1
At Pavia	1
	11

Libraries.

At Belluno, the Advocates' library contains	45,000	volumes.
At Bergamo, the largest contains	30,000	
At Brescia Id.	60,000	
At Mantua Id.	50,000	
At Milan, the Ambrosian library	90,000	
Id. the Brero library	140,000	
At Padua, the University library	70,000	
Id. the Benedictine library	52,000	
At Pavia, the University library	33,000	
At Venice, library of St. Mark	150,000	
Id. the Narri library	40,000	
At Vicenza	20,000	

Universities, Colleges, &c. in 1822.

Government of Milan	11
Id. Venice	7
University of Padua founded in 1221, attended in 1822 by 300 students.	
University of Pavia Id. 1361, 750	
Number of children who attend the schools	132,000[e]
In 1815, the children attending the schools in the delegations of Brescia and Bergamo, were as one in	14
In the delegation of Venice, in the year 1823, they were as one in	27
Idem, 1826, one in	23[f]

[d] Taken from the *Biblioteca Italiana*, February, 1825, January and February, 1826.
[e] According to Hassel.
[f] According to M. Balbi. See his work entitled, The World Compared with the British Empire.

KINGDOM OF PIEMONT AND SARDINIA.

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT INTENDENCIES, INTO FORTY CONTINENTAL AND TEN INSULAR PROVINCES, CONTAINING IN ALL NINETY-FOUR TOWNS, TWO HUNDRED AND SIXTY-NINE BURGHS, AND THREE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SIX VILLAGES AND HAMLETS.

Division of Savoy.[s]

Provinces.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Savoy Proper	119,910	Chamberyt	12,000
Upper Savoy	35,140	L'Hopital	1,500
Carouge	37,960	Saint Julien	1,000
Chaublais	45,030	Thonon	3,000
Faucigny	68,100	Bonneville	1,200
Genevois	71,850	Annecy	5,500
Maurienne	49,770	Saint Jean de Maur	2,500
Tarentaise	39,320	Montiers	2,500

Division of Turin.

Turin	315,480	Turin††	114,000
Biella	91,700	Biella†	7,700
Ivrea	136,200	Ivrea†	7,000
Pignerol	106,990	Pignerol†	4,000
Susa	65,470	Susa†	2,000

Division of Coni.

Coni	143,780	Coni†	16,500
Alba	99,380	Alba†	7,000
Mondovi	118,370	Mondovi†	17,000
Saluzzo	127,600	Saluzzo†	10,000

Division of Alessandria.

Alessandria	90,530	Alessandria†	30,000
Acqui	76,940	Acqui†	6,500
Asti	107,670	Asti†	21,000
Casal	102,820	Casal†	16,000
Tortona	47,580	Tortona†	8,000
Volghera	84,770	Volghera†	10,000

Division of Novara.

Novara	115,780	Novara†	13,000
Lumelline	101,330	Vigegano	15,000
Ossola	30,420	Domo d'Ossola	1,500
Pallanza	60,040	Pallanza	1,500
Val-Sezia	31,320	Varallo	3,300
Vercelli	101,130	Vercelli††	16,000

Division of Aosta.

Aosta	64,640	Aosta†	5,500

[s] The population of the provinces is taken from the census of 1826. The signs † and †† indicate bishopricks and archbishopricks.

Division of Nice.

Provinces.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Nice	85,220	Nice†	15,000
Oneglia	51,360	Oneglia	4,000
San Remo	36,650	Vintimille†	5,500

Division of Genoa.

Genoa	208,290	Genoa††	80,000
Albenga	50,860	Albenga†	4,000
Bobbio	31,490	Bobbio†	3,500
Chiavari	91,380	Chiavari	8,000
Levanto	64,450	Spezzia	4,000
		Sarsana†	3,000
Novi	56,540	Novi	8,000
Savona	36,340	Savona	10,000

Total 3,399,600 on a surface of 2,635 square leagues, giving on average 1260 for every square league.

Population of Turin at the end of 1825.[h]

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Different classes	39,514	43,094	82,608
Working classes	7,744	4,405	12,149
Clergymen	663	—	663
Servants	2,659	4,874	7,533
Jews	777	776	1,553
Individuals holding offices in the different congregations	275	—	275
Individuals in the monasteries	7	215	222
Id. in religious houses	15	848	863
Id. in the seminaries, colleges and military academy	995	—	995
Individuals in the hospitals	1,098	1,556	2,654
	53,747	55,768	109,515[i]

ISLAND OF SARDINIA.

Population of the provinces in 1821.

1 Cagliari	95,780
2 Busachi	63,270
3 Iglesias	36,680
4 Isili	44,170
5 Lanusei	24,540
6 Nuoro	47,900
7 Sassari	54,710
8 Alghero	26,660
9 Cuglieri	30,110
10 Ozieri	38,130
	461,950

[h] See Annal. Univers. di Statistica, February, 1826.

[i] The population of 1824 amounted to 107,388
Increase at the end of 1825 2,127
109,515

The increase from the end of 1825 to the end of 1826 was more than double that of the preceding year.

Population of the Dioceses in 1823.[k]

Names of the Dioceses.	Towns.	Villages or Burghs.	Population.	Number of Parishes.	Population of the Dioceses.
Cagliari	Cagliari††		27,356	79	109,888
		Quarto	5,320		
		Sanluri	8,301		
		Sinnai	2,643		
		Gergei	2,055		
Ogliastra		Villaputzu	2,150	28	25,982
		Seni	1,814		
		Lanusei†	1,379		
Sassari	Sassari†		19,368	32	77,467
		Sorso	3,285		
		Bonorvo	4,253		
		Ittiri	4,000		
		Ossilo	4,988		
		Ploaghe	3,000		
Iglesias	Iglesias†		4,591	23	22,803
		Carloforte	2,486		
Gastella and Nuoro		Nuoro†	3,349	25	33,570
		Dorgali	3,049		
		Fonni	3,000		
		Olienna	2,500		
Alghero	Alghero†		6,924	26	32,965
		Villanova	3,176		
		Bolotonà	2,180		
Bosa	Bosa†		5,553	20	23,017
		Santo Lussurgiu	4,022		
		Cuglieri	3,405		
Bisarcio		Ozieri†	7,766	24	29,760
		Pattada	3,019		
		Budduso	2,100		
Ales		Guspini	3,307	41	42,093
		Villacidro†	5,571		
		Gonnos Fanadigo	3,125		
Oristano	Oristano††		5,356	73	65,894
		Cabras	2,600		
		Tonnara	2,136		
		Isili	2,062		
Ampurias and Civita	Castlesardo		1,964	21	26,648
		Tempio†	7,057		
		Nulvi	3,009		
		Sedini	1,343		
		La Maddalena	1,758		
			Total	392	490,087[l]

[k] The above table has been derived from details furnished by M. Cibrario. See Bulletin des Science, section de Geographie, tom. ii.

[l] The above population, on a surface of 1,100 square leagues, together with the adjacent islands, gives the small proportion of 445 individuals for every square league.

Population of the Sardinian States.

	According to their origin.		According to their religion.
Peimontese	3,010,000	Catholics	3,864,000
Savoyards	386,000	Vaudois	22,000
Sardinians	490,000	Jews	3,700
Jews	3,700		
	3,889,700		3,889,700

Population of Sardinia according to their classes.[m]

Families.		Individuals.
1,600	Noble families	6,200
16,500	Husbandmen	85,000
16,300	Citizens	65,200
66,161	Workmen and Peasants	330,805[n]
	Ecclesiastics	1,757
	Monks	1,125
		490,087

Religious Societies and Convents in the Island of Sardinia.

Occupations.	Orders.	Religious Societies and Convents.	Individuals.
Teachers	Jesuits	2	11
Id.	Teachers of Religious Schools	6	74
Superintendents of Hospitals	St. John	5	28
Proprietors	Different Orders	30	317
Mendicants	Id.	47	695
		90	1,125

Number of Murders in the Island of Sardinia.

The proportion is as one to every 490 inhabitants.
Total number about - - - - - 1,000[o]

Table of Cattle existing in the Island of Sardinia in 1824.

	In a Domestic State.	On the Mountains.
Oxen	91,800	28,500
Cows	17,900	106,000
Pigs	30,000	156,000
Horses	29,000	17,800
Goats	-	314,800
Ewes	-	669,600
Rams	-	61,400
		1,523,100

[m] According to La Marmara. [n] According to an approximation. [o] See Storia di Sardegna, 1825.

Places of Education in the Sardinian States.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Turin	1[p]	1,200	University	110,000
Genoa	1[q]	420	S. Carlo	30,000
			Beria	20,000
			Franzoniana	30,000
Cagliari	1[r]	350	University	70,000
Sassari	1[s]	120	Id.	15,000
Different Towns	Gymnasia	41		
	Seminaries	37		

BUDGET OF THE SARDINIAN STATES IN 1825 AND 1826.

Island of Sardinia.

Cense	*l.*200
Domains of the Crown	3,504
Direct taxes	38,194
Indirect taxes	71,830
Contingencies	857
	*l.*114,585
Revenues of the continental provinces	259,400
Total	*l.*373,985
Public debt	*l.*4,200,000[t]

ARMY.

Land Forces.

In Sardinia, Infantry	10,000
Id. Cavalry	6,000

NAVY.

Ships of war	2
Frigates	3

Continental Provinces.

Infantry and Cavalry	10,000
Second rate vessels	7

Principality of Monaco.

Population.	Revenue.
6,500	*l.*16,700

[p] Founded in 1406. [q] Founded in 1803. [r] Founded in 1704. [s] Founded in 1764.
[t] The Sardinian debt amounted in 1816 to *l.*3,600,000. M. Adrian Balbi, (*Balance politique du Globe*) makes it equal in 1826, to *l.*4,200,000; he admits that his calculation may be inaccurate, but it is certain that the public debt in 1825 was considerably greater than in 1816.

DUTCHY OF PARMA.

CONTAINING SIX TOWNS, THIRTY-ONE BURGHS, AND EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTEEN VILLAGES OR HAMLETS.

Surface in geographical square leagues.u	Population in 1826.	Average Population to every square league.
288	440,000	1,180

The population in 1823 amounted to 437,000

Increase 2,600

Population of the Towns.

1 Parma	30,000
2 Placentia	28,000
3 Guastalla	5,000
4 Borgo-san-Domino	5,000
5 Fiorenzuola	3,000
6 Nibbiano	2,300

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Parma	1x	250	1	110,000
Placentia			1	20,000

Revenue.	Public Debt.	Army.
l. 191,667	*l.* 187,500	1,320 men.

DUTCHY OF MODENA.

CONTAINING EIGHT TOWNS, SIXTY BURGHS, AND FOUR HUNDRED VILLAGES OR HAMLETS.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Proportion of the population to the square league.
260	350,000	1,346

Population of the Towns.

Modena	27,000
Mirandola	6,000
Reggio	18,000
Castel Nuovo di Garfaguana	3,000

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Modena	1	200	1	60,000
Reggio			1	30,000

Revenue.	Public Debt.	Army.
l. 150,000	*l.* 50,000	1,680 men.

u Twenty geographical leagues are equal to a degree, consequently a geographical square league is equal to nine geographical square miles.

x Founded in 1606.

DUTCHY OF MASSA.

INCLUDING TWO TOWNS, THREE BURGHS, AND THIRTY-SEVEN VILLAGES.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
12	29,000	2,416

Population of the Towns.

Massa	7,000
Carrara	6,000

Revenue.	Debt.	Army.
£21,000	£12,500	100 men.

DUTCHY OF LUCCA.

CONTAINING TWO TOWNS, TWENTY BURGHS, AND TWO HUNDRED AND SEVENTY VILLAGES.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
54	143,000	2,648

Population of the Towns.

Lucca	22,000
Viareggio	2,000

Principal places of Instruction.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.
Lucca	1[y]	120

Revenue.	Debt.	Army.
£82,000	£35,000	800 men.

GREAT DUTCHY OF TUSCANY.

INCLUDING THIRTY-SIX TOWNS, A HUNDRED AND THIRTY-FIVE BURGHS, AND SIX THOUSAND AND SEVENTEEN VILLAGES.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the square league.
1,098	1,275,000	1,161

Population of the principal Towns.

Florence	80,000
Prato	10,000
Pistoia	9,000
Arezzo	7,000
Cortona	5,000
Pisa	20,000
Leghorn	66,000
Piombino	1,500
Pontremoli	3,000

[y] Founded in 1802.

Sienna	18,000
Grossetto	2,000
Vollera	4,000

Provinces.

Compartimento	of Florence	596,250
Id.	of Pisa	295,640
Id.	of Sienna	128,080
Id.	of Arezzo	201,290
Id.	of Grossetto	53,730
		1,275,000

Principal places of Education.

Towns.	Universities.	Number of Students.	Libraries.	Number of Volumes.
Florence	1[a]	300	Ducal	80,000
..	..	..	Laurenziana	20,000
..	..	..	Maglia Becchiana	130,000[a]
..	..	..	Marucelliana	50,000
..	..	..	Ricordiana	20,000
Pisa	1[b]	660	University	40,000
Sienna	1[c]	280	University	25,000

Elementary Schools.

Towns.	Lancasterian Schools.	Schools in the neighbourhood of Florence.
Florence	4	8

Revenue.	Debt.	Army.
*l.*708,500		4,000 men.

REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

CONTAINING ONE TOWN AND FOUR VILLAGES.

Surface in geographical leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the surface.
3	7,000	2,233

Revenue.	Military Force.
l. 2,920	40 men.

STATES OF THE CHURCH.

CONTAINING NINETY TOWNS, TWO HUNDRED AND SIX BURGHS, AND THREE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED AND EIGHTY-SEVEN VILLAGES.

Surface in geographical square leagues.	Population in 1826.	Ratio of the population to the surface.	Number of Jews.
2,257	2,590,000	1,147	15,000

New divisions into thirteen Delegations.[d]

Names of the delegations.	Population of the towns.	Population of the delegations.
1 Bologna	65,000	295,000
2 Ferrara	24,000	250,000

[a] Founded in 1443. [a] It contains 11,000 manuscripts. [b] Founded in 1339.
[c] Founded in 1330.
[d] The states of the church were divided into eighteen provinces in 1824; but the divisions were afterwards changed; we are indebted to M. Balbi for the above table.

Names of the delegations.		Population of the towns.	Population of the delegations.
3	Ravenna	24,000	150,000
4	Forli	16,000	170,000
5	Pesaro and Urbino	14,000 11,000	200,000
6	Macerata and Camerino	12,000 7,000	230,000
7	Fermo and Ascoli	7,000 12,000	160,000
8	Spoletto and Rieti	7,000 7,000	180,000
9	Viterbo and Civita Vecchia*	13,000 7,000	415,000
10	Ancona	30,000	160,000
11	Perugia	30,000	190,000
12	Fronzinone and Ponte Corvo	6,000 6,000	170,000
13	Benevento	14,000	20,000
			2,590,000

* The ninth delegation comprehends the town and territory of Rome.

Principal places of Education, Religious Houses and Hospitals.

Towns.	Universities.	No. of Students.	Seminaries.	Libraries.	No. of Volumes.	Convents.	Different Hospitals.
Ancona -	0	0	1	0		16	2
Albanno -	0	0	0	0		5	0
Ascoli -	0	0	1	0		8	1
Benevento -	0	0	1	1		14	4
Bologno -	1[f]	550	0	University Magnani	200,000 30,000	6	4
Camerino -	1[g]	200	0	1		19	0
Civita-Vecchia	0	0	1	0		6	1
Civita-Castellana	0	0	1	0		3	0
Fermo -	1[h]	2 00	0	1	15,000	3	0
Ferrara -	1[i]	3 00	1	1	80,000	22	1[k]
Forli -	0	0	0	0		10	0
Frosinone -	0	0	0	0		3	0
Frascati -	0	0	0	0		4	0
Fondi -	0	0	0	0		4	1
Macerata -	1[l]	200	1	1	20,000	3	0
Perugia -	1[m]	200	0	1	30,000	20	1
Pesaro -	0	0	1	0		10	1
Ponte Corvo	0	0	1	0		3	0
Ravenna -	0	0	1	1	30,000	4	1
Rieti -	0	0	1	0		3	0
Rimini -	0	0	1	1	25,000	7	0
Spolletto -	0	0	1	0		6	1
Tivoli -	0	0	1	0		14	1
Urbino -	0	0	1	0	10,000	10	1
Viterbo -	0	0	1	1		10	1
Rome -	1[n]	600	4	Albani	40,000	300	9
——— -	0	0	0	Angelica	100,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Barbarini	60,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Corsini	40,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Ghigi	25,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Of Minerva	80,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Of Science	35,000	0	0
——— -	0	0	0	Of the Vatican	70,000	0	0

[f] Founded in 1119. [g] Founded in 1824. [h] Founded in 1824. [i] Founded by Leo the Twelfth.

[k] The MSS. of Orlando and Jerusalem delivered, in the handwriting of Ariosto and Tasso, are preserved in the library.

[l] Founded by Leo the Twelfth in 1824. [m] Founded in 1307.

[n] Founded in 1248. We have not enumerated all the convents in the Roman States; there are few towns or villages without them.

Statistics of the Population in Rome from 1816 *to* 1825.[P]

	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.
Families	32,587	31,705	32,572	33,510	34,601	34,650	34,585	34,357	33,774	33,271
Cardinals	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
Bishops	32	31	28	26	28	29	27	27	32	32
Priests	1,303	1,434	1,429	1,399	1,455	1,397	1,450	1,395	1,570	1,456
Monks	1,286	1,370	1,450	1,487	1,519	1,532	1,532	1,565	1,613	1,662
Nuns	1,172	1,303	1,325	1,348	1,382	1,468	1,464	1,370	1,318	1,502
Pupils in the seminaries	241	423	359	252	424	332	409	460	469	468
Poor in the hospitals	2,757	2,992	3,044	2,289	2,826	1,963	1,942	1,438	1,290	2,002
Prisoners	778	996	1,667	1,728	1,033	968	1,112	1,218	1,080	1,020
Heretics, Turks, Infidels, exclusively of Jews	62	108	172	246	244	215	275	234	195	217
Children at the age of Communion	93,669	95,662	....	....	....	....	....	97,199	97,249	....
Id. before the age of Communion	35,301	36,241	....	....	....	....	....	39,070	40,696	....
Marriages	1,303	1,031	1,183	1,440	1,395	1,265	1,157	1,269	1,369	1,158
Baptisms	4,256	3,836	3,944	4,299	4,215	4,756	4,309	4,365	4,628	4,243
Deaths, males	2,750	3,997	4,145	3,741	2,785	3,128	3,320	3,129	2,997	2,460
Deaths, females	2,191	2,440	2,723	2,573	2,053	2,288	2,937	2,351	2,252	1,986
Total number of deaths	4,941	6,437	6,868	6,314	4,838	5,416	6,257	5,480	5,249	4,446
Males	67,226	69,544	....	....	...	....	....	72,355	72,273	73,397
Females	61,771	61,812	....	....	....	....	....	63,914	66,237	65,333
Total Population	128,997	131,356	133,812	134,161	135,046	135,171	136,085	136,269	138,510	138,370

[P] The tables for the years 1816 and 1817, are taken from M. Simond's Travels in Italy.

The mean number of marriages is about - - -	1.299
Their ratio to the population is one to - - -	106.60
The mean number of children for every marriage is about -	3.30
The number of births is to the population as one to - -	32.23
The number of deaths is to the population as one to -	24.76

Revenue.	Debt.	Army.	Marine.
L.1,250,000	L.25,000,000[q]	6,000	2 frigates. 8 vessels of smaller size.[r]

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

INCLUDING SIX HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-SIX TOWNS, THREE HUNDRED AND NINETY-EIGHT BURGHS, AND TWO THOUSAND ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-TWO VILLAGES AND HAMLETS.

	Surface in geographical square miles.	Population in 1826.	Population according to the sexes.	Ratio of the population to the surface.
Continental provinces	3,910	5,690,000	Men 2,774,646 Women 2,915,354	1,455
Sicily and the islands	1,610	1,780,000		1,074
	5,520	7,420,000		1,344

Division of the Kingdom of Naples into fifteen Provinces.

Provinces.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Other Towns.	Population.
Napoli	819,000	Naples	- - -	354,000
			Castelamare -	15,000
			Portici - -	5,000
			Pozzuoli - -	5,000
			Sorrento - -	4,000
			Torre del l'Annunciata	5,000
			Torre del Greco -	15,000
Terra di Lavora	663,000	Capua	- - -	8,000
			Acerra - -	6,000
			Arpino - -	9,000
			Aversa - -	13,000
			Caserta - -	4,000
			Fondi - -	5,000
			Gaeta - -	15,000
			Nola - -	9,000
Principato-Citer	503,000	Salerno	- - -	11,000

[q] According to M. Balbi.

[r] According to Hassel.

BOOK CXXXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Physical Geography of the Spanish Peninsula.—History of the ancient people that inhabited Spain and Portugal.—Mussulman Conquest.

No part of Europe is more favoured by nature than the Spanish peninsula; in ancient times, its mountains defended it against the attacks of hostile tribes; and so great is the variety of its climate that the productions of the tropics are blended with those of the temperate zone. Lofty plains, fruitful in useful plants, hills covered with vineyards, rich vallies watered by streams and rivers, so situated as to afford easy communications by means of canals, are the elements of an agricultural wealth, which might be rendered by industry more valuable than the possession of the largest colonies. A vast extent of coast, spacious and safe harbours, open to the navigation of two seas, are not less favourable to commerce. By what causes have the sources of so great prosperity been destroyed? The population of France exceeds that of Spain by fourteen millions, but the superficial extent of Spain is greater by two thousand and sixty-five square leagues.

Extent and surface.

The same vast region has been called a peninsula, perhaps incorrectly, for the space between the gulfs of Lions and Gascony can hardly be considered an isthmus. The Pyrenees separate it from France; one half of the country is watered by the ocean, and the other by the Mediterranean. The greatest length from east to west may be equal to 220 leagues, and the greatest breadth from north to south, to 190. The surface of the Peninsula is equal to 28,804 square leagues, of these, 4,922 belong to Portugal, 23,867 to Spain, and 15 to the republic of Andorra.[a]

Mountains.

It is only of late years that the physical geography of the country has been accurately described. The mountains by which it is divided, it was supposed, extended from a common centre, and their ramifications were compared to the veins of a vine leaf. A writer of very varied acquirements has detected the errors of former geographers. If the Spaniards are now less ignorant of the mountains, rivers and basins in their peninsula, they are indebted to the labours of a foreigner.[b]

The mountains in the peninsula, according to M. Bory de St. Vincent, form seven different divisions.

Pyrenees.

The whole chain of the Pyrenees may be divided into five principal masses. First, the *Mediterranean* or eastern, in which the highest summit is the peak of Canigou, from its declivities rise the Segro, a feeder of the Ebro, the Ter and the Llobrega that throw themselves into the Mediterranean; secondly, the *Aquitanian*, their glaciers are the sources of the Garonne and the Adour, but no large river flows from it into Spain; thirdly, the *Cantabrian* or central, separated from the Asturian by the sources of the Ebro; fourthly, the Asturian, almost as high as the Aquitanian, and rising abruptly on the south; fifthly, the Portuguese or western, of which the ramifications extend to the embouchure of the Duero.

[a] These leagues are each equal to two English miles and a half, if then they be multiplied by 6¼, the result will be equal to the superficial extent of the peninsula in English square miles.

[b] See Le Guide du Voyageur en Espagne, by M. Bory de St. Vincent. See also Dictionario de Espano y Portugal, by Doctor Sebastiano de Minano, ten volumes in quarto. The article Spain, in the Dictionary, is almost a translation of M. St. Vincent's work.

Rocks. A geologist has observed that although the Pyrenees belong to the granite formation, the same substance is not so ancient as in several parts of Europe.[c] Granite rocks are seen throughout the whole range, and they still bear the marks of a former revolution. Micaceous and other sorts of schistus rest on the sides of the mountains, and support organic remains of an ancient date; these are overtopped by red sandstone; lastly, calcareous rocks, similar to others on the Alps and Jura, extend to the lowest declivities. White marble appears in different directions above the granite, and the Alpine limestone is in many places covered with amphibole.

Iberian range. The Iberian range consists of different chains, which are united on the north-west with the Pyrenees, and terminated on the south-east, near the banks of the Guadalaviar. These different chains, united to each other, are called the *Sierra de Oca*, the *Sierra de Moncayo*, the *Sierra de Gudar*, and the *Sierra de Espadano*. The Sierra di Molina joins the Albaracino and the mountains of Cuenca.

Fossil bones. The same chains form the subdivision that has been called the Esperian mountains. Ancient calcareous rocks abound, and the low plains are covered with alluvial lands, mixed with so many fossil bones, that the country is known to the inhabitants by the name of Las Calaveras.[d] Many of the remains belong to animals now extinct. The plains from the sources of the Guadalaviar to its mouth, are watered by rapid streams, and surrounded by steep heights. The Sierra of Espadano has been compared to a long wall; lofty peaks are seen from sombre vallies, and tortuous ravines intersected by many rivulets form an inextricable and gigantic labyrinth. Ancient calcareous rocks, abounding in different metals, rise towards the east, but on the west, the country assumes a different aspect, the mountains are less precipitous, their black and porous rocks indicate a volcanic origin.

Carpetano-Vettonic range. The Carpetano-Vettonic range, so called because in ancient times its sides were inhabited by the Carpetani and the Vettones, joins the Iberian mountains, and terminates on the west at Mount Junto, which commands the Tagus at no great distance from its embouchure. The principal chain is steep and narrow, it bounds Old and New Castile, and separates the province of Salamanca from Estramadura. From the same chain, during the winter season, proceed the storms and tempests that are not uncommon at Madrid; in summer, the heat of the atmosphere is increased by the burning winds, which blow from Africa, and traverse the arid plains of La Mancha. Some summits are so lofty that the snow has been known to remain on them throughout the year. The range may be divided into three groups; the eastern, formed by the Somo-Sierra and the Guadarama, the central or the Sierra de Gredos, the most elevated of them all, it has its glacier near the *Palacio del Moro Almanzor;* many streams, that rise from different lakes in the same part of the country, enlarge the Tormes, a feeder of the Duero; lastly, the western group comprehends the *Pena de Francia*, the *Sierra de Gata*, the *Estrella*, and the heights that reach to the neighbourhood of Lisbon. In no part of the peninsula, are the woods and forests so extensive as in the last group. Granite appears to be the most common rock, it is of a coarse texture and a grayish colour; it may be concluded to be of a late formation, both from its liability to decomposition, and from the masses of a harder granite contained in it. Calcareous rocks abound in the neighbourhood of Madrid, while chalk and silex serve as a support for recent deposits.

[c] M. de Charpentier, Essai sur la Constitution Geognostique des Pyrenees.
[d] Calavera signifies a skeleton.

The Lusitanian range is lower than any that have been already mentioned, and the snow never remains on any part of it during the summer. It occupies the country between the Tagus and Guadiana, and is formed by the mountains of Toledo on the east, the Sierra de Guadaloupe on the centre, and the *Sierra* of *Saint Mames* on the west. | Lusitanian range.

The Marianic range, or the chain connected with the ancient Marianus, is higher than the last; the greatest elevation may be about 4600 feet, and the snow remains in some places during nine months in the year. A part of the chain separates the course of the Guadiana from the Guadalquivir. The eastern extremity consists of two branches, the *Sierra Alcaras* and the *Sierra de Segura;* the centre has been called the *Sierra Morena*, which signifies the black mountains, and recalls the ancient name of Mons Marianus. The *Sierra Albaleyrra*, which terminates near the Guadiana, forms the western extremity. The heights that surround Alcaras, are composed of psammites or argillaceous sandstone; and a chain consisting of volcanoes, now extinguished, but still easily discernible, stretches almost to the sources of the river.* | Marianic range. | Rocks.

The Cuneic range consists of the small chain, which the ancients called *Mons Cuneus*. It extends from the mouth of the Guadiana to Cape St. Vincent, and separates the kingdom of Algarva from the province of Alentejo, or the southern part of Portugal. It forms two chains, the eastern or the *Sierra Calderona*, and the western or the *Sierra de Monchiqua*. The heights are not lofty, and the range differs from the others in its constituent parts: sandstone is very common, but lava and other substances of the same sort appear on the eastern part; hence the name of *Sierra Calderona* or *Caldron Mountains* is not inapplicable to the volcanic products, for the craters still retain their forms and the characters that mark their origin. | Cuneic range.

The Betic range, of which the northern sides formed the Roman province of *Betica*, extends from the Rio Almanzor to the heights that terminate near the mouth of the Guadalquivir. The central part is made up of the Sierras Nevada and Loja. Although not the largest, it is certainly the loftiest range in the Peninsula. Many summits, higher than the Pyrenees, are covered with eternal snow. The steep sides of Algodonales and the Gastor are commanded by the peak of San Oristoval. The snow always appears on the top of Sierrania de Conda, where a small hermitage has been erected and dedicated to *Nuestra senora de las Nieves*. In the eastern part of the same range are different groups that rival each other in height; the most remarkable are the Sierra Prieta, the Sierra Alhama and the Sierra Tejeda; but in point of picturesque scenery, they cannot be compared with the Sierra de Torqual, in which the rocks, forms, and dimensions, are so singularly arranged that they might be compared to the ruins of a town built by the Titans. But these mountains are neither so imposing nor so lofty as the summits of Sierra Nevada, which commanding the horizon on every side, bear the marks of perpetual winter. The snow line commences at the height of about 9500 feet above the level of the Mediterranean, which bathes the southern base. From these summits, says M. Bory de St. Vincent, may be seen at the same time the Sierra Morena, more than thirty leagues distant towards the north, and the coasts of Africa, which are at least forty-five leagues distant to the south. The Mulahacen is the most elevated point in that range of snow-covered peaks; it reaches nearly to the same height as the famous peak of Teneriffe, in other words to more than 12,700 feet. | Betic range.

Introduction a la Historia Natural y Geografia fisica de Espana, 4to. 1782.

The deep vallies in the Betic range cross each other in every direction, and most of them are watered and rendered fruitful by limpid streams.

Rocks. The whole chain belongs to the primitive formation. The Sierra Nevada is schistous; limestone useful in building, and marble of different colours are supported on gneiss, and the onyx, a fine kind of agate, is not uncommon in the neighbourhood of Cape Gata. The rock of Gibraltar, at the other extremity of the chain, rises to the height of 1470 feet above the Mediterranean. It has excited for a long time the attention of geologists. It consists of gray limestone, divided by perpendicular fissures, and these are filled with calcareous concretions, containing an immense quantity of bones and shells; many of the former belong to different sorts of deer, none of which are at present found in Europe. Such phenomena may be considered the proofs of a partial cataclysm, fatal to the animals on the sides of our continent.[f]

Parameras. As connected with the heights in the Peninsula, it may be worth while to mention the *Parameras* or platforms, all of which are very lofty, and many of a great size. They either extend between different parts of the ranges that have been already mentioned, or are situated near their summits, so that they appear less elevated than they really are. The most remarkable of these bare and solitary table lands are situated in the province of Soria. In the Pyrenees, in the mountains of Molina, Albarracino, Cuenca and also in those of Toledo and Gredos, may be seen other parameras, which, independently of their extent, might be compared with the arid summits in Tartary.

Basins. Considered physically, the Peninsula may be divided into five large basins, and into as many others of a smaller size. To the first class belong the basins of the Ebro, the Duero, the Tagus, Guadiana and Guadalquivir; to the second, the basins of the Guadalaviar, Jucar, Segura, Mondego and Mino. The basin of the Ebro, although the smallest in the first class, is larger than any other that communicates with the Mediterranean. Three of the second class are inclined in the same direction; from four large basins and two of a smaller size, the waters of the Peninsula are borne to the ocean. Thus, before the straits at Gibraltar were formed, all the eastern and southern declivities in the country must have been submerged, while the others on the side of the ocean were not inundated.

Basins of the Tagus. The Tagus flows through the longest basin in the Peninsula; it was famed in ancient times; its name has not been changed. Poets have celebrated the happy banks and flowery meads of the Tagus; but whoever surveys its numerous windings, discovers little that can justify the praises of Silius Italicus, and other ancient writers. The arid banks are in most places very steep; for more than three-fourths of its course it flows with the rapidity of a torrent; the ancients styled it *Auratus*, but no particles of gold are now found in the red ooze carried down by the waters. The river takes its source in the Albarracino mountains, and the length of its course is not less than a hundred and seventy leagues. The principal feeders on the right bank are the *Jarama*, which is enlarged by the Tajuna, the *Guadarrama* that descends from the mountains of the same name, the *Albercho* that rises between the mountains of Gredos and Avila, the *Tietar* that has its source in the heights connected with the Gredos chain, lastly, the *Alagon* and the *Zezere*, the former rising from the Sierra de Francia, and the other at the base of the Sierra de Estrella. The largest streams that enter the Tagus on the left bank, are the Rio del Monte and the Salor; the one descends from the Sierra Guadalupe, and the other from the Sierra of Montanches.

[f] See Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles by M. G. Cuvier, 4to. 1821.

The ancient name of the Anas is still retained in the Guadiana, an Arabic periphrase, which signifies the waters of the Ana. The length of the river may be about 150 leagues; it descends from the mountains of Cuenca, where it is called the Rio Gijuela; but as it is formed by several streams that unite with each other, its real source has not yet been determined. It is supposed that it issues from the marshes of Riduera, where indeed a rivulet escapes and disappears after a course of twenty-five miles; but it is seen anew near a place called the *Ojos* of *Guadiana*. The Ojos, or Eyes, are two large fountains of bubbling water, which issue from the earth, and form, by their junction, a stream that the inhabitants of the country call the Guadiana. Several rivers are known which appear and disappear; but if the marshes of Riduera be really the sources of the Guadiana, it disappears twice before it runs through its extensive basin. The size of the river, still insignificant below Gijuela, is not much increased until it receives the Jabalon on the left bank, and the *Bullague* on the right, which descends from the mountains of Toledo. It receives at a greater distance from its source the *Guadalema* and the *Zuja*, that rise in the mountains connected with the Sierra Morena; the other feeders are the *Matachel*, that issues from the Sierra Constantina, the *Ardila*, and the *Chanza*, that descend from the Sierra of Aracena. All these enlarge the Guadiana, and give it such a degree of velocity below Martola as to form a cataract, the Wolf's Leap, or *Salto del Lobo*. Basin of the Anas.

The Duero, the ancient *Durius* or the *Douro*, according to its Portuguese name, flows through a broader basin than the Tagus or the Guadiana; it takes its source at the peak of Urbione, and separates it from the Sierra of Oca. The length of its course may be about a hundred and forty leagues; and as its basin is very broad, most of its feeders are important. The Pisuerga, one of the largest on the right bank, is formed by the junction of several rivers that rise in the Pyrenees and the Sierra de Oca; the Esla, which descends from the same chain, and receives itself several large feeders, falls into the Duero below its junction with the Pisuerga; the Tamega enters the same river at the distance of fifteen leagues from the ocean. The feeders on the left bank, are the Eresma from the parameras of Avila, the Tormes from the lofty summits of Gredos, and the Rio Coa from the Sierra of Gata. The soil in different parts of the basin is not unfruitful, but in some places the land is so heavy, that the rain changes it into a thick and tenacious clay; in others, it consists of moving sand, on which the only plants are resinous trees. The river, after it leaves the mountains, waters dismal and extensive parameras, of which the elevation above the sea is not less than 2,400 feet. A wretched vegetation heightens the monotonous appearance of these immense plains. Basin of the Duero.

When the Arabs made themselves masters of the Peninsula, they were struck with the great size of the Boetis, and gave it the name of the *Guad-al-Keber;* the same name has been changed by the Spaniards into *Guadalquivir*. According to the common opinion, it rises on the western declivities of the Sierra Sagra; but according to the rule generally adopted by geographers, the source of a river must be sought in the stream most distant from its mouth. The Guadermena, therefore, that descends from the Sierra Alcaras, has been incorrectly denominated; it ought to be called the Guadalquivir; thus the river rises in the basin of the Guadiana, and waters the Betican range. Two other large rivers, issuing from the same basin, enter the Guadalquivir on the right side, the one, or the Ajandula, flows across the Morena mountains, and the Biar, or the other, makes a passage for itself in the middle of the Sierra Constantina. The Genil, or the ancient Singilis, the largest feeder that flows from the Neveda range, enters the same river on the left bank. The lands near the Genil are in many places deeply impregnated with salt; Basin of the Guadalquivir.

efflorescences, hurtful to vegetation, are formed in the summer season. The Guadalquivir, after its junction with the Genil, waters a low and fruitful country; but beyond the neighbourhood of Seville, a belt of land, about two leagues in breadth, which the inhabitants call the *Marisma*, as insalubrious as the Italian Maremmas, extends from Tablado to the salt springs of San Lucar. That small region is intersected by several brackish streams, which, descending from the declivities of Morone and Montelliano, change the country into a sort of marsh; a few slender plants, useful only in furnishing soda, are all the vegetation on the light ooze thus formed. But the river, divided into several branches, encloses different islands, the *Menor* and the *Major*, as well as others of great fertility, and numerous herds of cattle are reared on their rich meadows. The same river is not navigable above Cordova.

Basin of the Ebro. | It is from the ancient *Fons Ibera*, in the valley of Reynosa, that the Ebro takes its source. It was called the *Iberus* by the Romans; during the greater part of its course, it is confined by mountains; and the vallies they enclose, afford passages to its numerous feeders. On the left side, the Agra and the Arragon unite, and at no great distance beyond their junction enter the river; the *Gallegos*, the *Cinca*, and the *Segre*, are the rivers it receives below Mequinenza; all of them flow from the Pyrenees. Other feeders descend from the Oca heights, the Sierras of Moncayo, and the Pena Goloca. The principal are the Xalon, which has been compared to the Marne, and the Guadalope, which the Arabs rendered useful by their canals on the basin of the Ebro. The length of its course amounts to one hundred and twenty leagues; although less sinuous and more rapid than the Seine, it may be compared to it from the extent of its course and the body of its water. The rocks that fall from the mountains, often impede its navigation; thus the Spanish government has been at considerable expense in constructing a canal parallel to the river from Tudela to Sastaga. It might be equally useful to complete a canal, which was begun many years ago, between the Ebro and the Duero. The country between the two rivers, is not of such a nature as to oppose any great obstacles; but the funds are wanting for the completion of such a work. A canal stretches along the Segre between Mequinenza and Lerida, and others on the basin of the Ebro have diffused abundance into that part of Spain, still their number is not sufficient. The deposits which the river carries to the Mediterranean have formed a considerable delta at its embouchure, and it has been necessary to cut a canal, in order that vessels may ascend to the small town of Amposta below Tortosa.

Other basins. | The other basins in the Peninsula, although of less consequence, may be shortly mentioned. On the south of the Ebro, extends the basin of the Guadalaviar, a small river rising between the Sierras Molino and Albaracino, and fed by several streams, none of which are so large as the Alhambra. The length of the course may be more than 50 leagues: the basin, which it waters, is bounded on the north by the Pena Goloca and other heights that extend towards the Ebro; on the west by the chain that stretches to the Albaracino range. On the south of the last is situated the basin of the Jucar, another small river, fed by the Gabriel and the Lambay, and forming many windings between mountains and hills. The Jucar rises on the western declivities of the Albaracino heights, and runs to the distance of more than eighty leagues.

Basin of the Segura. | The basin of the Segura is larger than the two last; on the north and on the east it is bounded by hills, and a group, the Penas di San Pedro, extends on the north-west; on the east are situated the Sierra Sagra and the Sierra Alcaras. The Sigura including its windings, may be equal in length to fifty-five leagues; it receives the streams of the Rio Mundo, the Quipar and the Sangonera. In the first part of its course,

the country, which it waters, is wild and desert, but from the valley of Ricote to the Mediterranean, the lands are covered with the richest vegetation.

Two small rivers discharge their waters into the ocean; the Mino or the larger descends from the Sierra de Mondonedo; although of considerable breadth the length of the course does not exceed sixty leagues. It flows southwards until it joins the Sil, then turns to the west where it is commanded on one side by the Sierras of *Penagache* and *Estrica*, and on the other by the Barcian chain. The mountains on the same basin, exclusively of those connected with the Pyrenees, are the Sierras of Segondina, from which the Bibey, a feeder of the Sil, takes its source. The Mondego, a river to the south of the Duero, flows in the direction of east to west, the basin through which it passes, is enclosed by the Sierras of Alcoba and Estrella; the distance from the source to its mouth is not less than fifty leagues, it is fed by the Alva, the Siere and the Soire. Mino.

The division of any country, according to the basins that may be contained in it, cannot satisfy the geographer, who seeks other limits than those which are seen, other boundaries than the courses of rivers. A writer,[5] who has thrown additional light on many subjects, has divided the Peninsula into four parts according to the inclination of the surface. The Cantabrian or Cantiberian is formed by the northern declivities of the Pyrenees, from the sources of the Adour to Cape Ortegal; the Lusitanian or the second consists of the southern declivities of the Pyrenees and other heights, watered by the Duero, the Tagus and the Guadiana; it forms a vast semicircle, of which the two extremities are Cape Ortegal and the mouths of the last river; the southern declivities of the Sierra Morena, and all the mountains connected with the same chain, that terminate at Cape Gata, including besides the Sierra Nevada, the hills from which the Guadalquivir and its feeders descend, make up the third or Iberian division. The last or the Betican comprehends the eastern declivities of all the mountains, which extending from Cape Gata to the Pyrenees, form the Sierras of Algamilla, Segura, Albaracino, Molina, Moncayo and Oca. The southern declivities of the Pyrenees, from their connexion with these Sierras, form part of the same division. This arrangement, intended to explain the passage taken by the sea, when it left the Peninsula, cannot be supposed to correspond strictly with the phenomena which the vegetation of the country presents. To elucidate that subject, another plan must be adopted; this fair portion of Europe may therefore be divided into six regions, thus it will not be difficult to classify the principal facts relative to the temperature.

The central or Celtiberian region comprehends the two great ridges of old and new Castille, in other words, the Sierras of Gata, Gredos, Avila, the mountains of *Somo Sierra* on the north of the Tagus; the Sierra of Mames, the mountains of Toledo to the defiles of the Sierra Molina, and also all the western declivities of the Sierras Morena and Albaracino, as far as the Martes mountains on the south of the same river. Although forests and isolated summits may appear in this part of the Peninsula, it consists chiefly of sterile and immense plains; it is a junction of table lands, not unlike the central one in Asia Minor. The apple tree is nowhere seen, the olive begins to show itself on the south, and the vine succeeds almost throughout the whole extent. The oak that yields the sweet acorn, flourishes in the same part of the country; its fruit, not unlike the almond, may be conceived to have been food for the earliest inhabitants of Spain. Central region.

[5] M. Bory de St. Vincent.

Betic region. The southern or Betican region extends from east to west, from Cape Palos to Cape St. Vincent; and from north to south, from the southern declivities of the Sierra Morena, including the mountains of Algarva, to the Mediterranean and the ocean. The country in the neighbourhood of the sea, might almost be considered an African zone, it is marked by the presence of the banana, the dwarf palm and the cactus.[h] The stony places are covered with the caper bush; their numerous and long stems, their purple flowers, like so many tufts or feathers, adorn the rocks and uncultivated lands. A second zone, always verdant and covered with the plants of Sicily and Italy, rises above the last. The myrtle, the orange, and lemon tree, the rose laurel, the Agnus castus, the tamarisc, and the nerio, are the most common in this part of the Peninsula. Another and a higher zone is adapted for the vine, and different kinds of grain; forests of pine extend above it; to these succeed Alpine plants and heights covered with eternal snow.

Iberian region. The eastern or Iberian region comprehends from north to south, all the space between Cape Palos and Cape Creux, and from east to west the basin of the Ebro, and the lands situated between the Sierras Molina, Albaracino, Martes, the mountains of Palomera, Orihuela, and the Mediterranean. This magnificent portion of the Peninsula, which may be compared to the shores of Ionia and Doris, possesses all the plants of Sicily, the Archipelago, and the Levant. The olive flourishes every where, the carob tree grows near the lentisc, while the myrtle, the laurel, the fig, and the mulberry display their varied foliage; the grape yields a strong wine, but within the same division as in the last, are situated several zones, which exhibit different kinds of vegetation, from the low vallies to the summits of the Pyrenees.

Lusitanian region. The Lusitanian region, or that of the lower Tagus, extends from north to south, from Cape St. Vincent to Cape Roca; its breadth is determined by the southern branch of the Sierra d'Estremos. It is sheltered against cold winds by the mountains on the north of the Tagus. The lower parts are covered with sandy heaths, but one zone may be distinguished by its groves of orange and olive trees. M. Bory de St. Vincent observed on the coasts, particularly on the south, a vegetation, similar in some respects to that of the Atlantic islands. "From the mountains of Cintra and the Semas of Ourem to Cape St. Vincent," says the same writer, "botanists may discover a great many plants, which, it was supposed, were confined to the Acores, Madeira, and the Canaries. American plants thrive and multiply easily; some of them might even be considered indigenous; at all events they have banished such as are so in many large districts, where they flourish as well as in their native land."

Gallician region. The Gallician region, or that of the Duero, occupies from north to south, the space between Cape Roca and Cape Finistere; it is different from the preceding; the oak and the chesnut abound, but the olive and the orange appear only on the low vallies towards the south of the Duero.

Cantabrian region. The northern, or Cantabrian region, comprehends all the country from the sources of the Adour to Cape Finistere; it is intersected by vallies, which incline either from west to east, or from south to north. The downs are not extensive, and all of them are situated near the coasts. The constant or uniform character of the region, consists in the absence of the cistus and rose laurel. The orange and the olive are reared with difficulty, and the same remark is applicable to the vine; but the hills and vallies in this fruitful region are covered with rich crops and verdant meadows. The constant verdure may be attributed to a fertile soil, and a humid atmosphere. The apple flourishes in every

[h] Botanical Geography by Schow. Copenhagen, 1822.

district, cider is substituted for light wine, so that the country may be considered the Normandy of the Peninsula.

If, as every appearance leads us to believe, Africa and Spain were once united, the Balearic islands must have been part of the Peninsula. They seem to be a continuation of the chain which terminates at Cape St. Martin; their general direction is from south-west to north-east; they consist of four principal islands, Ivica and Fromentera, Majorca and Minorca; but several others of a smaller size are situated near these coasts. Thus, around Ivica, may be seen *Dragonera*, or the Dragon's island, *Conejera*, or the Rabbits' island, and *Cabrera*, or Goats' island, as well as Esparto, Bebra, Espalmador, Espardella, and Tagam. The island of Ayra lies near the southern shores of Minorca; the others may be passed over in silence, they are of little or no importance. Balearic Islands.

The island of Fromentera is equal to four leagues at its greatest breadth, its utmost length does not exceed five. It is believed that it was so called in modern times, from the great quantity of grain which it produces in proportion to its surface. It was the small Pityusa, or *Pityusa Minor*, of the ancients. Ivica, or Ivisa, to the north of the last, may be about twenty-two leagues in circumference; the Romans called it *Ebusus*. It might be inferred from their ancient names, that these islands were once covered with forests. Fromentera.

Majorca, or Mallorca, is the *Balearis Major* of the ancients; it may be about fifty leagues in circumference. Strabo informs us that the rabbits which the early inhabitants brought to it, multiplied so rapidly, that the people were at last obliged to implore the assistance of the Romans to destroy these animals.[i] Majorca.

Minorca, or Menorca, the ancient *Balearis Minor*, is not less than thirty-eight leagues in circumference; it lies to the east of the last.

The land in these islands is mountainous, their geological formation is everywhere the same. Calcareous rocks are the most common, a fact that may serve to corroborate the opinion concerning their submarine junction with Cape St. Vincent. The heights of the mountains, the rocks and vegetables of the Baleares, have been accurately known since the year 1825, the year that a French naturalist visited these islands.[k] The island of Majorca is the most important, the two principal mountains are the *Puig de Torcella*, and the *Puig Major*.[l] The two groups, which divide the islands, are formed by calcareous rocks, belonging to lands of lower deposits, such as the rock called *lias* and oolithic limestone. The other minerals are dolomia, porphyry, and rocks, which appear to be of igneous origin. Medicinal springs, and different specimens of copper ore indicate their mineral wealth, from which the inhabitants have hitherto derived no advantage. Majorca, like the other Baleares, may be distinguished by its arid summits and verdant plains. The carob and the olive tree appear in all their vigour. The first occupies the lowest level, and ascends to the height of fifteen hundred feet; the second thrives on the mountains; it unites with the Aleppo pine, and covers the declivities; but the last, flourishing at the height of six hundred feet above the olive, mingles with the green oak, which grows three hundred feet above it. The highest summits are covered with a sort of sesler, *Sesleria soerelna*. The dwarf palms on the stony heights protect with their broad foliage different kinds of cyclamen, ononides, and anthyllides. The peasants often set fire to forests of oaks and pines on the mountains, in order Minorca.

[i] Book III. ch. 2.

[k] M. Cambessede, Membre des Societes d'Histore Naturelle et Philomathique de Paris.

[l] M. Cambessede took a barometrical measurement of the two mountains; according to him, the first is equal to 4,778 feet in height, and the second to 3,676.

to protect a vegetable, which they call *carregt*, (*Donax tenax.*) It diffuses itself over all the vacant space thus produced, and affords in the following year an abundant nourishment for men and cattle. In vain do the pines and oaks push forth shoots, the carregts keep their ground, and it is not before many years that they yield to the efforts of their gigantic neighbours. The myrtle, the pistachio, the thorny caper bush. the cistus, and other shrubs on the stony heights near the mountains of Majorca, indicate the Mediterranean region. The lignous salicornia, and the tamarind, grow on the marshes near the shore, the vine flourishes on the hills, and the cotton plant is cultivated on the low and humid lands. It is unnecessary to give an account of the vegetable productions in the neighbouring islands, they differ but little from those that are found in Majorca.[m]

Ancient inhabitants.

The Baleares, or Balearides, were so called by the Greeks, from the great skill with which the inhabitants used the sling.[n] According to Pliny, they were also called *Gymnasii*, because they went naked to battle.[o] Their arms were a small buckler, a javelin, and three slings of different sizes, one or other of which was used according to the distance of the enemy. Their children were early accustomed to handle the same instrument; it is said that their parents refused to give them food, until they hit a mark at a certain distance.

It has been inferred from the surname of *Gymnasii* or *naked*, that the Greeks and Romans had not often friendly intercourse with these islanders, for it is certain that they wore dresses long before the inhabitants of Italy. Diodorus Siculus mentions a singular custom established amongst them; the "marriage ceremony," says he, "terminates in a feast, but the husband is not permitted to consummate the nuptials, until the bride has granted her favours to all the guests." The Romans conquered the Balearides, not so much to put a stop to the piracies of the islanders, as to deprive the Carthaginians of important stations for the commerce of the Mediterranean. The same people founded *Palma* and *Pollensa* in Majorca, two places which shall be afterwards mentioned; the islands formed part of the province *Tarraconensis*.

Origin of the word Spain.

Many conjectures have been formed concerning the origin of the words *Hispania* and *Hesperia*, the ancient names of the Peninsula. It is probable that Hispania comes from the Phenician word *span*, which signifies *concealed*, not an inapplicable name, for at an early period the country was little known to the Phenicians. It has been also said that they called it Spania, from the number of rabbits they observed.[p] The Greeks called it Hesperia, from its western situation, relatively to their own country.[q] The name of Iberia, which it also bore, seems to have been derived from the name of its early inhabitants. M. Bory de St. Vincent supposes them a colony from the island or continent of Atlantis. Such an assumption, however, is liable to many objections; and it appears to be as probable, as the opinion supported by several Spanish authors, who affirm that the first inhabitants of their country were descended from Tubal, a son of Noah, who landed in Spain twenty-two centuries before the Christian era.

Ancient inhabitants.

The Iberians, according to Herodotus, were divided into six tribes; the *Cynetes*, *Gletes*, *Tartesses*, or *Turdetani*, *Eleusinii*, *Martinii*, and *Celeiani*. Strabo informs us that the Tartesses made great

[m] Enumeratio plantarum quæ refuruntur in insulis Balearibus. Cambessede, 4to. Paris, 1827.

[n] From the Greek word *ballo*, I throw. [o] Pliny, Hist. Nat. Lib. III. ch. 5.

[p] The double signification of the word *span*, (concealed, rabbit,) leads to a double interpretation. The Romans adopted the last, as appears from a medal of Adrian, on which Spain is represented by the figure of a woman, with a rabbit on her side. See Flores, Medalles de Espania. Tome i. p. 109.

[q] Hesperia signifies the west, or the evening, in Greek.

advances in civilization; they applied themselves to literature, they possessed books of poetry, histories of a very ancient date, and laws which, they affirmed, were written six thousand years before his time.[7]

Diodorus Siculus mentions the invasion of the Celts into Spain. The Iberi made war against them for a long time; but after an obstinate resistance on the part of the natives, the two people entered into an agreement, according to which, they were to possess the country in common, bear the same name, and remain for ever united; such, says the same historian, was the origin of the Celtiberi in Spain. These warlike people, continues Diodorus, were equally formidable as cavalry and infantry, for when the horse had broken the enemy's ranks, the men dismounted and fought on foot. Their dress consisted of a *sagum*, or coarse woollen mantle; they wore greaves made of hair, an iron helmet adorned with a red feather, a round buckler, and a broad two-edged sword, of so fine a temper, as to pierce through the enemy's armour. Although they boasted of cleanliness, both in their nourishment and in their dress, it was not unusual for them to wash their teeth and bodies with urine, a custom which they considered favourable to health. Their habitual drink was a sort of hydromel; wine was brought into the country by foreign merchants. The land was equally distributed, and the harvests were divided among all the citizens; the law punished with death the person who appropriated more than his just share. They were hospitable, nay, they considered it a special favour to entertain a stranger; being convinced that the presence of a foreigner called down the protection of the gods on the family that received him. They sacrificed human victims to their divinities, and the priests pretended to read future events in the palpitating entrails.[8] At every full moon, says Strabo, they celebrated the festival of a god without a name; from this circumstance, their religion has been considered a corrupt deism.

Celtiberi.

The Phenicians were the first people who established colonies on the coasts of Spain; Tartessus was perhaps the most ancient; at a latter period they founded Gades, now Cadiz, on the isle of Leon. They carried on there a very lucrative trade, inasmuch as it was unknown to other nations; but in time, the Rhodians, the Samians, the Phocians, and other Greeks, established factories on different parts of the coast.

Earliest colonies.

Carthage had been founded by the Phenicians; but the inhabitants, regardless of their connexion with that people, took possession of the Phenician stations, and conquered the whole of maritime Spain. The government of these republicans was still less supportable; the Carthaginians were unable to form any friendly intercourse with the Spaniards in the interior; their rapine and cruelty excited the indignation of the natives.

The ruin of Carthage paved the way to new invaders, and Spain was considered a Roman province two centuries before the Christian era. Those who had been the allies, became the masters of the Spaniards; and the manners, customs, and even language of the conquerors were introduced into the Peninsula. But Rome paid dear for her conquest; the north, or the present Old Castille, Arragon, and Catalonia, were constantly in a state of revolt; the mountaineers shook off the yoke, and it was not before the reign of Augustus that the country was wholly subdued. The Peninsula was then divided into three provinces, *Lusitania*, *Betica*, and *Tarraconensis*.

Spain, a Roman province.

The Lusitanian province, or the western region, was separated on the north from Tarraconensis by the Duero, above its confluence with the Tormes; the two most eastern points within its limits were *Libora*, on the Tagus, and *Augustobriga*. The course of the Guadi-

Lusitania.

[7] Strabo, Book V. ch. 2.

[8] Diodorus, Book V. ch. 31.

ana served as a boundary from the mountains of Toledo to the Mediterranean. Thus, it comprehended the greater part of Portugal, and all Estremadura. *Emerita Augusta*, the present Merida, was the capital of the province.

Betica. Betica was separated from Lusitania by the Guadiana, and from Tarraconensis by a line extending from the neighbourhood of Civdad-Real to the Rio-Almanzar; it formed the most southern portion of the Peninsula; *Corduba* was its capital.

Tarraconensis. All the rest of Spain was included in the province of Tarraconensis; *Gallœcia* on the north-west, now Gallicia, *Carthaginensis*, now the kingdom of Murcia, and the Balearic islands were contained in it.

The same province was also called *Hispania Citerior*, while the two others formed *Hispania Ulterior*.

Inhabitants of Lusitania. The province of Lusitania was partly peopled by the *Cynetes* or *Cinesii*, the earliest inhabitants of Algarve. The Celtici, Celtes-Glebas, possessed the land between the Guadiana and the Tagus. The country round the mountains of Gredos belonged to the *Vettones*, a people that passed from a state of inactivity and repose to the vicissitudes and hardships of war. The Lusitani, a nation of freebooters, were settled in the middle of Estremadura; they were distinguished by their activity and patience of fatigue; their food was flour and sweet acorns, beer was their common beverage. They were swift in the race; they had a martial dance, which the men danced, while they advanced to battle.[1]

Inhabitants of Betica. The part of Betica near the Mediterranean, was peopled by the *Bastuli*, or, as they were also called, the *Pœni*. The *Turduli* inhabited the shores of the ocean, near the mouths of the Bœtis. The *Bœturi* dwelt on the Mariani mountains, and the *Turdetani* inhabited the southern declivities of the Sierra d'Aracena. The last people, more enlightened than any other in Betica, were skilled in different kinds of industry long before their neighbours. When the Phenicians arrived on their coast, silver was so common amongst them, that their ordinary utensils were made of it. What was afterwards done by the Spaniards in America, was then done by the Phenicians in Spain; they exchanged iron and other articles of little value for silver; nay, if ancient authors can be credited, they not only loaded their ships with the same metal, but if their anchors at any time gave way, others of silver were used in their place.

Inhabitants of Tarraconensis. The people in *Gallœcia*, a subdivision of *Tarraconensis*, were the *Artabri*, who derived their name from Cape *Artabrum*, now Cape Finistere, the *Bracari*, whose chief town was *Bracara*, the present *Braga*, and lastly the *Lucences; Lugo* was the capital of their country. These tribes, and some others, formed the nation of the *Calaici*, or *Gallæci*, who, according to the ancients, had no religious notions. The Asturi, now the Asturians, inhabited the banks of the Asturis, or the country on the east of the Gallœcian mountains. *Asturica Augusta* was their capital. The *Vaccei*, the least barbarous of the Celtiberians, cultivated the country on the east of the Asturi. The fierce *Cantabri* occupied the coasts of Old Castille; it was customary for two to mount on the same horse, when they went to battle. The *Carites*, or *Caristi*, inhabited part of Biscay on the same declivities of the Pyrenees; on the southern sides, the *Turmodiges* and the *Murbogii*, were settled in the province of *Burgos*. Their neighbours on the east, were the *Autrigones* in Alava, the *Berones* in Rioja, and the *Varduli* in Guipuscoa. The *Vascones*, or *Navarrenses*, the ancestors of the present Gascons, were settled on the north of the Ebro. The *Jaccetani* were scattered on the Pyrenean declivities of Arragon. The brave Ilergetes resided in the country round Lerida, and

[1] Strabo, Book III. ch. 3.

the *Vescitani*, between the *Vascones* and *Ilergetes*. As to the country on the east of these tribes, the whole of Catalonia was peopled by the *Cerretani*, *Indigetes*, *Castellani*, the *Ausetani*, *Saletani*, and *Cosetani*. The lands on the south of the Ebro were inhabited by the *Arevaci* and *Pelendones*, the former were so called from the river *Areva*, they were settled in the neighbourhood of Arevalo, and in the province of Segovia, the latter possessed the high plains of Soria and Moncayo. The space between the mountains of Albarracino and the river, was peopled by the *Edetani*, one of the most powerful tribes in Spain. The *Ilercavones*, who were not less formidable, inhabited an extensive district between the Upper Jucar and the Lower Ebro. The territory of the *Suessetani*, between the Ebro and the Guadalaviar, extended to the shores of the Mediterranean. The country of the Carpetani, or the space from the Guadiani to the Somo-Sierra, forms at present the archiepiscopal see of Toledo. The people on the south of the last, were the *Oretani*, between the Guadiani and the Mariani mountains, and the Olcades, a small tribe, near the confluence of the Gabriel and the Jucar. *Carthaginensis*, a subdivision of Tarraconensis, was inhabited by two tribes;—the Bastetani in the centre of Murcia, who often made incursions into Betica, and the *Contestani*, who possessed the two banks of the Segura, near the shores of the Mediterranean from Cape Palos to the Jucar.

Manners of the ancient Spaniards.

In time of peace, says Diodorus Siculus, the *Iberi* and *Lusitani* amused themselves in a lively and light dance, which requires much activity. The ancient writer alludes perhaps to the *fandango*, a dance of which the origin is unknown. An assembly, composed of old Celtiberians, was held every year; it was part of their duty to examine what the women had made with their own hands within the twelvemonth, and to her, whose work the assembly thought the best, a reward was given. An ancient author[u] mentions that singular custom, and adds, that corpulency was considered a reproach by the same people; for in order to preserve their bodies light and active, the men were measured every year by a cincture of a certain breadth, and some sort of punishment was inflicted on those who had become too large. The age of marriage was fixed by law; the girls chose their husbands among the young warriors, and the best means of obtaining the preference, was to present the fair one with the head of an enemy slain in battle.

Dress.

Strabo enters into some details concerning the dress of the ancient Spaniards. The Lusitani covered themselves with black mantles, because their sheep were mostly of that colour. The Celtiberian women wore iron collars, with rods of the same metal rising behind, and bent in front; to these rods was attached the veil, their usual ornament. Others wore a sort of broad turban, and some twisted their hair round a small ring, about a foot above the head, and from the ring was appended a black veil. Lastly, a shining forehead was considered a great beauty; on that account, they pulled out their hair, and rubbed their brows with oil.[x]

Spain in the middle ages.

The different tribes were confounded while the Romans oppressed the country; but in the beginning of the fifth century, Sueves, Vandals, and Visigoths, invaded the Peninsula, and mixing with the Celts and Iberians, produced the different races, which the physiologist still observes in Spain. The first people, or the Sueves, descended the Duero, under the conduct of Emeric, and chose Braga for the capital of their kingdom. Genseric led his Vandals to the centre of the Peninsula, and fixed his residence at Toledo; but fifteen years had not elapsed after the settlement of the barbarous horde, when Theodoric, conquered

[u] Nicolas of Damas. See his fragments, collected by Constantine Porphyrogenetes.
[x] Strabo, Book III. ch. 2 and 3.

by Clovis, abandoned Toulouse, penetrated into Spain, took Toledo, and compelled the Vandals to fly into Africa. During the short period that the Vandals remained in the country, the ancient province of Betica was called Vandalousia, and it bears the name of Andalousia to this day. But the Visigoths soon extended their conquests, and all the country from the Ebro to the Straits of Gibraltar, submitted to them. The ancient Celtiberians, who had so long resisted the Romans, made then no struggle for liberty or independence; they yielded without resistance to their new masters. Powers and privileges were the portion of the Gothic race, and the title of *hijo del Godo*, or the son of the Goth, which the Spaniards changed into *hidalgo*, became the title of a noble, or a free and powerful man among a people of slaves. A number of petty and almost independent states were formed by the chiefs of the conquering tribes; but the barons or free men acknowledged a liege lord. Spain and Portugal were thus divided, and the feudal system was thus established. Among the Visigoths, however, the crown was not hereditary, or at least the law of regular succession was often set at defiance by usurpers. The sovereign authority was limited by the assemblies of the great vassals, some of whom were very powerful; indeed the Count Julian to avenge himself on King Roderic for an outrage committed on his daughter, delivered Spain to the Mahometan yoke.

Spain under the Moors.

After the country had submitted for three centuries to the Visigoths, it was subdued by the Arabs in the year 712. A single engagement, the battle fought at Xeres, on the left bank of the Guadalete, was sufficient to secure the conquest. The settlement of the Moors in the Peninsula may be considered one of the events which illustrate the superiority of a well informed and polished people over a nation divided by factions, and degraded by the feudal system. Cordova was chosen as the capital of their empire; rendered confident by success, they devoted themselves to the sciences, cultivated letters and the fine arts, embellished Cordova, Grenada, and other towns, with their elegant mosques, governed the vanquished with mildness and justice, and nowhere violated the laws of a wise toleration. By such means, they thought to strengthen their empire, while a poor but intrepid people in the mountains of Asturia, were silently preparing a way for the independence of their country. *Pelagio*, or *Pelayo*, a simple shepherd, whom some writers call a prince or a king, because he showed himself worthy of being one, founded the kingdom of Oviedo, which he extended by his conquests to the Duero, and afterwards to the chain of Guadarrama. The same kingdom was divided by its founder into two, those of Leon and the Asturias. The Christians were encouraged by his example; whilst they, to preserve themselves, concentrated their forces, the lieutenants of the caliphs were divided by ambition, and weakened by civil discord. They were styled kings of Cordova, Seville, Valencia, and Grenada; but they were not united, and separately, they were unable to resist the torrent that threatened to destroy them. From the year 1085, the Moors began to lose their provinces in Spain; and on the second of January, 1469, Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castille, made their triumphant entry into Grenada, the last bulwark of the Mussulmans.

Conquest of the kingdom of Grenada.

The kingdom of Grenada lost with its ancient masters, its wealth and power. It was the finest conquest of the Spaniards, but fanaticism transformed it into a desolate and wretched province. The Mahometan population, the most enlightened, industrious and wealthy in the Peninsula, were reduced to slavery. It was forgotten that the Moors had respected in the time of their prosperity, the laws and the religion of the vanquished. The fires of the Inquisition were kindled by the same men who preached union and brotherly love. According to the terms of the capitulation, concluded with the last king of Grenada, no one was to be punished for his religious belief; but the vio-

lation of treaties made with infidels, was considered an act of piety by the Holy Office. The conquered, almost reduced to despair, were easily excited to revolt. Unable to resist, great numbers received baptism, and the wealthiest, on paying a stipulated sum, obtained permission to pass into Africa. By this measure, considerable sums flowed into the royal treasury, but immense capitals were for ever taken away from Spain. Not satisfied with its triumph, the inquisition pretended that the conversion of the Mussulmans was not real, and the latter could only escape from death by a new and successful revolt. Having fled for shelter to the mountains, they called to their assistance their brethren in Africa; but before any aid could be had from that quarter, a Moorish sovereign was proclaimed, conquered, and beheaded. The Spanish government, emboldened by the weakness of the rebels, refused their submission, and they were banished from the kingdom, conformably to a decree of Philip the Third.

Expulsion of the Moors.

Their expulsion was an act of state policy, of which the consequences were long fatal to the arts, agriculture, and commerce of Spain. A Spanish writer describes the kingdom of Grenada about the beginning of the sixteenth century. "A short time after the conquest of Ferdinand, that rich province contained seventy fortified towns, and Grenada alone was peopled by two hundred thousand inhabitants."[y] The imposts and produce of the mines in the same part of the Peninsula, were enormous, comparatively with what they are at present. The single tax on silk produced a revenue of 181,500 gold ducats.[z] It is humiliating to the Spaniards, says an English writer, that the noblest monuments in their country, are those which a hateful race of conquerors left behind them.[a]

BOOK CXXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula. Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva.

General remarks.

It may not perhaps be deemed according to rule, to commence the political account of the Peninsula, with that of a kingdom so insignificant as Portugal; but it should be recollected that the same method has been already followed,[b] and in an historical point of view, it merits the priority, for the kings of Portugal were freed from the Saracens, and in possession of their present limits, long before Spain had shaken off the Mahometan yoke. Henry of Burgundy was created count of *Portocale*, because he assisted the king of Castille in his expeditions against the Moors. About the commencement of the twelfth century, Alphonso Henriquez, the son of the same Henry, received from his soldiers the title of king, after having killed with his own hand five Mussulman princes, whose heads occupy a prominent place in the armorial bearings of Portugal.[c] It was about the middle of the following century, that Alphonso

[y] Zurita, Annals of Arragon.

[z] Voyage pittoresque et historique de l'Espagne, by Al. de Laporide, folio edition, tom. ii.

[a] Hallem's Middle Ages.

[b] M. Bory de St. Vincent.

[c] Some authors derived the name of Portugal from *Porto-Gallo*, (the French port,) a town in which Henry of Burgundy and his companions resided, and which is now called

the Third took Algarve from the Saracens. Free in a land which his courage had delivered from foreign oppression, it was during the same heroic age that the Portuguese emerged from the darkness of barbarism, and betook themselves to the sciences, to navigation, agriculture, and trade; they led the way in the career of those memorable discoveries that extended the circle of European communication with Asia and Africa, afterwards with a vast continent, of which the genius of Columbus had prognosticated the existence. In the annals of the middle ages, no nation holds a greater rank than the one that during two centuries, conquered many islands, gave laws on the banks of the Ganges, founded numerous towns and factories in India, covered every sea with its ships, and shared with Spain vast territories, bounded according to the decrees or caprice of a Roman pontiff. If Portugal was invaded by Philip the Second, when the dynasty of Avis became extinct, if it remained sixty years subject to Spain; the colonies it lost during the same period, roused the spirit of the nation, and gave rise in 1640 to a conspiracy, by which the independence of the country was secured, and the crown conferred on a duke of Braganza, the founder of the reigning family. Although comparatively insignificant in point of population, it has shown more than once how much the strength of a country may be increased by the public spirit of the inhabitants. Recollecting its past glory, it may be expected that, under an enlightened government and a wise policy, it may again occupy no mean station among the kingdoms of Europe.

Position, political limits.

The kingdom of Portugal extends from north to south, between the forty-second and thirty-seventh parallel, and from east to west, between the ninth and eleventh degrees of longitude. Its political limits on the north are Gallicia and part of the province of Zamora; the boundaries on the east are the provinces of Salamanca, Estremadura, and the kingdom of Seville.

Natural limits.

The natural limits of the same country are the course of the Mino, the mountains of Penagache and Segondera on the north; on the east, the Duero, the Turon, the Herjas, part of the Tagus, the Sever, a portion of the Guadiana, the Chandza, and the lower Guadiana from its junction with the Chandza to its embouchure; the ocean forms the southern and western confines of the kingdom. Its greatest length from north to south is equal to a hundred and twenty-five leagues,[d] and its greatest breadth from east to west may be about fifty. The superficies amounts to four thousand nine hundred and twenty square leagues,[e] and the population to three million, three hundred and forty thousand inhabitants.

Climate.

As Portugal is very narrow from north to south, it might be thought that the climate throughout the kingdom was almost uniform; but the inequalities in the soil, the direction of the vallies, and the greater or less proximity of the ocean, have a considerable influence on the temperature. It is sufficient to travel a few leagues to transport oneself from the excessive heat of Lisbon to the cold of Germany. Although the

Oporto or Porto. Other writers affirm that there was an ancient burgh named *Calé*, now *Gaya*, at the mouth of the Duero; in course of time, a harbour was built opposite to Calé; it received the name of *Portucalé*, (the port of Calé,) and became the town of Porto, of which *Calé*, or *Gaya*, forms the suburbs. It is from the word Portucalé, that the name of *Portucalia* was first applied to the present provinces of Mino and Tra-os-Montes, and afterwards to the whole kingdom. The most ancient document in which the name of Portugal occurs, bears the date of the year 1069; it is carefully preserved in the monastery of Aroun. See the Historical Geography of Gaëtano de Lima, tom. i. p. 86.

[d] The league mentioned in this work, is equal to the twenty-fifth part of a degree.

[e] Geographers differ as to the extent of surface; M. Bory de St. Vincent makes it equal to 3,437¼ square leagues—Cheling to 1,642 German square miles, or 4,566 square leagues.—Franzini to 28,350 miles of sixty to the degree.

The last measurement has been adopted by Balbi, it seems to be the most correct.

temperature diminishes gradually from the coast to the highest summits, still the laws of increase or diminution are modified by several local causes. Thus, in a high country, in the province of Tras-os-Montes, the heat is excessive during summer, and more so in the neighbourhood of Lamego than any where else, for the hills of slate near the town, incline to the south, and the Marao forms a barrier against the north wind. Besides, the distance from the sea is so great that the same wind passes with difficulty into the country; therefore, the confined situation of the valley, and arid slate hills exposed to the sun's rays, render it perhaps the warmest part of Portugal in the summer season.[f]

Seasons and temperature.

The lower districts in the same kingdom, possessing the advantages of a very short winter, may be said to have a double spring. The first begins in February, the succeeding months are sometimes cold and rainy, at other times dry and warm. The crops are reaped in June, and by the end of July the plains are scorched, the grass becomes yellow, the trees wither, and it requires much labour and care to preserve esculent vegetables. While the heat along the coast is often more excessive than in the torrid zone, the temperature of the higher regions is cool and mild.[g] The low country is adorned with a second vegetation about the end of September, or beginning of October. The plants of spring succeed suddenly those of autumn, the meadows are covered with new grass, the trees seem to have renewed their foliage, and the orange groves, then in flower, give to the month of October all the charms of the finest spring. Winter commences at the end of November, and continues until the month of February; it is the season of much rain and violent hurricanes; the torrents then make a passage for themselves to the rivers, the latter overflow their banks, and the ordinary communications between different parts of the kingdom are interrupted. But the cold is sufficiently keen in the mountains of Tras-os-Montes beyond the Duero, and also on the summits of the Sierras Estrella, Mames, and Estremos; although the snow accumulates, the rivers are seldom frozen. The Portuguese affirm that snow lies during the greatest heat of summer on the summit of the Gaviarra, in the province of Mino, on some cavities of the Marao, and on the tops of the Estrella. But snow does not remain more than a month on the other mountains, and it is altogether unknown in the kingdom of Algarve. The north wind prevails in winter in the provinces of Tras-os-Montes and Entre Duero-and-Mino, and the west wind in those of Beira, Estremadura, and Alentejo, during the same season. The greatest cold is generally accompanied with the east wind, which passes over the snowy summits of Castille. In the other seasons, and particularly in summer, the north-west wind blows in the morning, and the south-west in the afternoon.

Climate of Lisbon and the provinces.

According to a well informed observer,[h] the winter at Lisbon, and on the basin near the mouth of the Tagus, continues during December, January, February and March; April and May are the two months of spring; the summer lasts from June to the end of September, and autumn from October to the end of November. The basin of the Mondego, in the neighbourhood of Coimbra, is more temperate than Lisbon, but it is also more humid and less salubrious. The climate of Oporto and Penafiel is equally humid, the winters are colder and more nebulous, and the summers on the contrary are very warm. The winters are always mild in the kingdom of Algarve; the meadows are always enamelled with flowers during the months of July, August, and September. If October be a rainy month, it is not uncommon to see

[f] Essai Statisque sur le Royaume de Portugal et d'Algarve, by Adrian Balbi.

[g] The difference of temperature between the coasts and the high country is about ten degrees of Fahrenheit, or four and a half of Reaumur.

[h] Colonel Franzini, his work is cited by Balbi.

the fruit trees flourish anew in November. December and January are the wettest months, and abundant rains in April are the signs of a plentiful harvest. A remarkable fact in the history of atmospheric phenomena may be mentioned; in the month of May the wind follows generally the direction of the sun, in other words, it blows from the east at sunrise, from the south at mid-day, from the north-west in the evening, and from the north during the night.

Storms. | Although Portugal be a mountainous country, it is seldom exposed to violent storms; thunder is only heard during the autumn and winter.

Salubrity of Portugal. | Having entered into sufficient details concerning the temperature, a few remarks may be offered on the salubrity of the climate. Portugal is justly celebrated on this account in England, and many examples of longevity prove that the opinion, unlike many of the same nature, is not founded on prejudice. Among the places noted for their salubrity are Braga, Ponte de Lima, and almost all the others in the province of Mino. Mirandella, Villa-Pouca, Montalegre, and several towns in Tras-os-Montes, are equally healthy. The same remark is applicable to the upper valley of the Mondego, in the centre of the kingdom; or to the country between Guarda and the Ponte di Marcella. Ourem, Loures, and Lisbon in Estremadura, Beja, Evora, and Ourique in Alen-Tejo, Monchique, Faro, and Tavira in Algarve, have been commended for the same reason by the Portuguese. But many parts of the country, particularly such as are humid and marshy, are considered unwholesome. The inhabitants of Quarteira, Lagos, Silves, and San Marcos d'Assera in Algarve, as well as those of Silveiras and Monte-Moro-Novo, in Alen-Tejo, are subject to different maladies, attributable to local causes. Pezzo-de Regan, Chaves, Braganza, and Miranda in Tras-os-Montes, possess a sad celebrity. The same may be said of Almeirim in Estremadura, and almost all the southern bank of the Tagus between the Rio-Almanzor and the country near Lisbon, of the southern declivities on the Estrella, and the lands watered by the Mondego, from Coimbra to Figuerra, in the province of Beira.

Diseases. | Some diseases are most prevalent in particular situations; thus at Lisbon, apoplexy, paralysis, liver and breast complaints, are more common than in other parts of the country, and the variations of temperature occasion different sorts of fevers, and other diseases produced by suppressed perspiration. The people in the northern provinces are subject to rheumatism and pleurisy, and the salt marshes on the coast produce obstructions and dropsy. A sort of leprosy attacks the working classes in Beira, and intermittent fevers, dropsy, and anthrax, are not unfrequent in Alen-Tejo; lastly, the inhabitants of Algarve are exposed to gastric fevers, and to a certain inflammation known by the name of *mal de Beriga*, which medical men attribute to the great quantity of unripe figs that constitute the principal food of the lower orders during three or four months in the year.[1]

Earthquakes. | The frequency of earthquakes may be considered the greatest calamity to which the southern part of Portugal is exposed; a year seldom passes away without the recurrence of several shocks, and since the eleventh century Lisbon has been fifteen times more or less injured. It has been observed that they happen in the months of October and April, and particularly after the first rains that succeed the heat and droughts. These facts are important, inasmuch as they prove an invisible relation between the atmospheric phenomena and those taking place in the depths of the earth. The data hitherto collected concerning volcanoes, and the shocks which they produce, are extremely vague; but

[1] Balbi, Essai Statistique.

enough is known to prove that the subterranean communications in which they are developed, extend to a great distance; the famous earthquake that overturned Lisbon in 1755, was felt almost at the same instant in Africa, Ireland, and America.

Mineral wealth.

It would be incorrect to estimate the mineral wealth of Portugal from the inconsiderable profits gained by the inhabitants; a more accurate notion of its value and importance may be inferred from the facts recently published by M. Balbi. Few countries in Europe have a greater number of mineral springs: there are ten in the province of Mino, six in Tras-os-Montes, seventeen in Beira, twelve in Estremadura, nine in Alen-Tejo, and two in Algarva. These are either gaseous, saline, sulphureous, ferruginous, or merely warm; all of them are of a temperature more or less elevated. The Carthaginians obtained their metals from the same country; it possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, lead, and tin; but it is now dependant on foreigners for these substances, which, if well worked, might form a lucrative branch of exportation. The coal mines are for the most part neglected; the salt marshes are only worked with profit; the number of workmen employed in them, thirty years ago, was equal to five thousand four hundred, and the annual quantity of salt to 384,000 casks; but much less of the same article is now exported; the annual produce does not exceed 140,000 casks, of which the value in English money may be estimated at £100,000.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is in a less advanced state than in most of the corn countries in Europe; a quantity sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants is not produced in the kingdom; on an average, 150,000 measures of grain are imported every year, and it costs more than £1,500,000. It may be added too, that only a sixth part of the imported grain is brought from the Portuguese colonies. M. Balbi, however, believes that enough is produced in ordinary years to maintain the inhabitants; he attributes the necessity of exportation to the consumption at Lisbon, into which place, from the want of roads, supplies cannot be brought into the interior. The same cause is not without its influence on the agriculture of the country; the freedom of the port at Lisbon serves only to aggravate the evil, inasmuch as foreign corn is thus attracted into the kingdom. Other causes retard the development of agricultural industry; it may be sufficient to mention the heavy imposts to which the peasantry are subject, the great number of privileged estates belonging to the crown, the nobility, the church, and different towns, the want of hands occasioned by the military service, which falls principally on the inhabitants of great towns, and also a common custom among the nobility, that of not living on their estates, but of letting them on long leases to farmers, who sublet them to labourers; lastly, the want of communications, occasioned by the bad state of the roads. Government has endeavoured to put an end to all these abuses; but civil divisions and an impoverished treasury have hitherto prevented the proposed improvements.

Cattle.

The wretched state of agriculture must have necessarily some effect both on the number and quality of the cattle, and the same effect operates in its turn on the culture of the soil. The days on which the people abstain from butcher meat, make up nearly a third part of the year; hence they are obliged to receive annually from foreigners 280,000 hundred weights of dried or salted fish, an article which costs them every year about £415,000. The bad quality of the grass, and the husbandman is not anxious to improve it, the little profit he derives from milk, being unable to convert it into butter or cheese, account sufficiently for the dependence of Portugal on her neighbours.[k] The oil obtained

[k] Salt butter and cheese are imported from Holland and England.

from its neglected olives is so ill made that it cannot be a source of profit; indeed, if the quantity of the same article which is imported, be compared with the quantity exported, it may be found that the former exceeds the latter in value by £5000. Under better management, Portugal could not only supply her colonies, but several foreign countries with oil.

The provinces of Mino, Tras-os-Montes, and Beira, are fruitful, but chiefly in grain. The greater part of Estremadura and Algarva remains uncultivated; the principal products of the last province consist in figs and almonds. Pears and apples are cultivated in the other parts of the country, chesnuts abound everywhere, and those of Colares and Portaleyre are as much extolled as the figs of Almada. Estremadura is enriched by the sale of oranges and lemons, which are prized in every country. The wines of Portugal are not less celebrated; that of the upper Duero is well known in England by the name of port; the others are the muscadine wines of Carcavelos, Setubal, and the white wines of Algarva. Portugal exports annually almonds and dried figs, of which the ordinary value may be about £21,000, oranges to the amount of £84,000, and 47,000 pipes of wine, worth more than £1,830,000.

Animals. It has excited surprise that the country people understand so little about rearing silk worms and bees; if these branches of rural economy were better known, the inhabitants might add considerably to their wealth. But the other products of the animal kingdom are equally neglected; the sheep might be much improved; the flocks are numerous, particularly in the province of Beira, from which they are driven in the winter season into Alen-Tejo. The wool, indeed, is less valuable than that of Spain; still it is purchased by strangers; but the quantity exported does not yield more than £17,000. The horses are inferior to those of Castille and Andalusia; although small, they are light and well made: it requires only a moderate degree of care to improve the breed, and to increase the number, which at present is very inconsiderable. The mules are not numerous, but of a good kind, large, strong and docile.

Wild animals. Wolves haunt the forests and the mountains, and the wild cat frequents the desert lands. Wild goats, although less common than formerly, are not unfrequently seen in the Serra of Geres. The stag, the roe, and the wild boar, appear sometimes in the woods; hares are rare, and rabbits less numerous than in Spain. According to an author, on whose accuracy we rely,[1] the insects of northern Africa are found on the heaths, the butterflies, common to the south of France, on the sides of the Estrella, and the scarab of the north on the heights of Tras-os-Montes. Vipers and other reptiles are concealed in the mountains; it is not uncommon to observe in the fields, nay, even in the houses, the Mauritania cordylus, an animal which the Portuguese abhor, attributing to it qualities that it does not possess, and not appreciating the services it renders by destroying many hurtful insects.

Fish. The rivers and coasts abound in fish of every sort; shads, eels, sardel, soles, and flounders, are taken in great plenty; some of the other kinds are the *Muroena ophis*, the *Scomber pelamis*, and the *Xiphias*. From such abundance, Portugal might derive its principal wealth; but government has neglected these important fishings. Three centuries ago, Portuguese fishermen competed with the Dutch on the shores of Newfoundland, but at present they can hardly explore their own coasts. Although their trade requires a considerable outlay, although the taxes on the produce of their industry are excessive; in short, although poor and wretched, their number amounted some years ago to more than 18,000: but many, it is said, unable to live in their own land, seek the means of subsistence in the American or English navy.

[1] Essai Statistique by A. Balbi.

Religion.

Different writers have affirmed that the Portuguese are degraded by ignorance and superstition. A few remarks on the religion, manners, and literature of the people, may serve perhaps to dissipate errors which have been often repeated. Of late years greater toleration has been shown in Portugal, as well as in most states under the influence of European civilization. Catholicism is the established religion, but the others are tolerated. The principles published by the Cortes in 1821, have effected this happy change; the tribunal of the inquisition was then abolished, which derived indeed no support from public opinion. The number of ecclesiastics was greatly exaggerated by the geographers of the last century, and writers of the first merit have believed and repeated their blunders.[m] It might be proved, however, by correct data, published many years ago, and since confirmed by more recent details, that the total number of those in holy orders, including the members of the secular clergy, as well as the persons of both sexes in the monasteries, cannot be more than 29,000 individuals.[n] The higher clergy consist of three archbishops and thirteen bishops. The archbishop of Braganza possesses the highest dignity; he is styled patriarch and primate, titles which were created in 1716. If some writers are to be believed, the clergy are not irreproachable, but on the contrary, shamefully corrupt. It appears, however, that within a period of twenty years, the manners of the people have been improved, and the national character of the Portuguese has in some respects been changed by frequent communications with foreigners. They are no longer the same people that violated the most sacred moral obligations, and observed punctiliously the ceremonies of religion. The soldiers are no longer like those, who, in the war of the Succession, refused to march until St. Antony, the patron of Lisbon, was appointed their general by Don Pedro, the king. The Portuguese are still superstitious, but not fanatical. Docile to the voice of their priests, they tolerated the inquisition, but condemned the excesses of that revolting tribunal. The mildness or apathy of the people is apparent even in political commotions; their politeness extends from the highest to the lowest orders of society; unlike the Spaniards, they are friendly disposed towards strangers, nor is it in that respect only they resemble the French, their vivacity is almost as great. The Portuguese have been accused of indolence and vain-glory; the peasants in Estremadura and Alen-Tejo, are indeed slothful and lazy; but if the people in all the provinces boast of their nation, it may be attributed to their own ignorance and to the im-

[m] In the article Portugal, in the *Dictionnaire d'Econnomie Politique de l'Encyclopedie Methodique*, the number of ecclesiastics is said to exceed 300,000 individuals.

Bourgoin, in his Nouveau Voyage en Espagne, (Paris 1797, 3 vols. 8vo.) and Dumourier in the Etat present du Portugal, estimates the number in holy orders at 200,000.

M. de Laborde made the number amount in 1808, to 280,000.

M. Bory de St. Vincent, in his Guide du Voyageur en Espagne, supposes them equal to more than 200,000.

[n] The above number the result of M. Balbi's calculation in the Statistique du Portugal, is not below the truth, and we believe indeed that its tendency is to diminish rather than to remain stationary. It is remarkable, then, that the same mistake has been so often committed, more particularly as from the number of convents, the number of their inmates can be easily calculated. In the year 1790, according to the geography of Stein, there were 418 convents for men, and 108 for women. It is known that the mean number of persons for each convent is sixteen; therefore it may be easily shown that in the same year the total number of individuals in all the convents did not exceed 8416. But the convents have been since reduced to 363; thus there are only now in Portugal 5808 monks and nuns. If the number of those employed in the hospitals be estimated at 100, and it is not more, the result will be 5908. Portugal contains about 4054 parishes; supposing five priests for each parish, the number throughout the kingdom amounts to 20,270, and together with the inhabitants of the convents, to 26,178. Thus it appears we have rather exceeded than underrated their total number, in assuming it equal to 29,000.

portant part which their ancestors acted on the theatre of the world. It has been frequently asserted, since the time of Link,[o] that the Portuguese are perfidious and vindictive. There is either something worse than exaggeration in the assertion, or the people are much changed. Although it may be just to condemn them for their faults, it is not right to conceal their good qualities; they are for the most part much attached to their native land, disinterested in their friendships, and faithful in their attachments. According to M. Balbi, an impartial and judicious observer, the people in the province of Mino are shrewd and industrious, but impetuous and easily excited; the inhabitants of Tras-os-Montes are simple, brave, and active; those in Beira are more laborious, but less polished than the natives of Estremadura: the Algarvians, on the other hand, are the most lively people in Portugal.

The portrait of the Portuguese, drawn by Du Chatelet,[p] and copied by modern geographers, is any thing but flattering. The people, says that writer, are of a swarthy complexion, their noses are short, their lips thick; now certainly they are not of a swarthy complexion, neither are short noses nor thick lips characteristic features. They have the complexion of the people in southern Europe, although not of a tall stature, they are in general well made; deformed persons are rarely seen amongst them. The finest and strongest men in the kingdom are those in the provinces of Mino, Tras-os-Montes, and on the mountains of Estrella, they have generally fair complexions and light or chesnut hair; in the other provinces black is the prevailing colour of the hair. Long black hair, a fine complexion, large eyes and white teeth, might render the Portuguese the most attractive women, if with the gayety of the French, they united the dignity of the Spaniards.

Amusements. The vivacity and warm imagination which distinguish the Portuguese, are probably the causes of their eagerness after pleasure. The theatre, music, dancing, processions, bull fights, in short, whatever can gratify the senses, have to them irresistible charms. Their lively music is not unpleasing to strangers; the popular songs, accompanied with the guitar, are light and graceful, but in most of them the words are too licentious. The national dance, or the *Foffa*, is so lascivious, that every stranger who sees it, must deplore the corruption of the people, and regret to find such exhibitions permitted not only in the country, but in the heart of towns, and even on the stage.

Language. The Portuguese language, formed from that of the ancient Turdetani and the Latin, was once, like other Italic tongues, a barbarous dialect; Arabic words were introduced into it under the domination of the Moors, and afterwards French vocables, when Count Henry of Burgundy settled in Portugal with his comrades. It acquired greater regularity during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; in the sixteenth that softness and energy were united, which have been so justly admired in the verses of Camoens. Since the same period the Portuguese language has degenerated; the usurpation of the throne by Philip the Second hastened its decline. Despotism checked the flight of genius, and repressed the utterance of generous thoughts, servility substituted the language of flattery for that of truth, thus the sentiments as well as the language of the people were degraded. The Portuguese has not the guttural sound of the Spanish, it is rich and sonorous, but the frequency of nasal terminations, and the facility with which the words of other languages may be adopted, weaken its harmony; had not several modern

[o] See Bamer kungen aufeiner Reise durch Frankreich, Spanien und vorzuglich. Portugal 1800.

[p] The work entitled Voyage du duc Du Chatelet en Portugal avec des notes de Bourgoing, (1798, 2 vols. 8vo.) was written by M. Cormartin, a zealous royalist of La Vendee.

writers proved the contrary, it might be supposed from the last defect, that it was not rich in vocables.[q]

It is a common error to condemn Portuguese literature, because it happens to be little known in Europe. The country has produced distinguished men in many departments of knowledge. Some poets since the time of Camoens, are held in no ordinary celebrity by their countrymen; if those who have devoted themselves to the dramatic muse, have been unable to raise the Portuguese theatre from the obscurity in which it languishes, it must be admitted on the other hand, that several Lyric poets are not unworthy of the fame which has been conferred on them. Citizens became legislators during the last political struggles, and although the mass of the people were incapable of enjoying the wise institutions of Don Pedro, still the knowledge diffused among the higher classes must have one day a salutary influence on the destinies of the kingdom. From data, which we believe correct, it appears that more than a hundred works in the various departments of literature and science are published every year in Portugal.[r] The number is certainly greater than might have been inferred from the intellectual state of the people. There was a time when the liberty of the press, and the interest excited by political questions, increased the number of newspapers to more than thirty. Literature.

The low state of the fine arts may be attributed to the little encouragement afforded either by the wealthy or by government. Music is the only one in which any of the Portuguese have hitherto become eminent. Many facts are not wanting to prove the low state of education among the lower orders; in Spain, indeed, the system of education is much worse; with that exception, however, there is perhaps no other country in Europe where the number of scholars relatively to the schools is so inconsiderable. But the places of education for the children of the rich or privileged classes, may bear a comparison with any in other countries. Scientific instruction is committed to able professors, and the labour of the students is abridged by good elementary works, written in the Portuguese language. Fine Arts.

Since the year 1821, the time in which the form of government was changed, Portugal has more than once excited the attention of Europe. The constitution by which the legislative power was committed to the king and the Cortes, must form for a long time an epoch in the history of the country. But a real national representation was no innovation in the state, for the establishment of the cortes dates from the eighth century, or from the foundation of the kingdoms of Leon and Castille, and they are repeatedly mentioned in the earliest times of the Portuguese monarchy. These assemblies, which German or Gothic princes formed round the elective throne, were composed of the great proprietors or barons, to whom the right of conquest gave that of constituting themselves into a national body, and they assumed the prerogative of restraining the power of kings, and confining it within due limits by the refusal of subsidies. With the military nobility, the clergy afterwards united, an order by so much the more powerful, as during the wars against the Moors, the banner of the cross became the banner of independence. The invasion of the Sueves and Visigoths, did not destroy in the Spanish Peninsula the duties of those agents whom the Romans appointed in the great towns, for they still exist under the name of *procuradores;* they formed the third class of members that composed the Spanish and Portuguese cortes. These assemblies deliberated on the laws, and regulated the imposts. It was not unsual for them to encroach on the prerogatives of the crown; while the cortes sat at Coimbra in 1387 under the reign of John the First, Government.

[q] See Atlas ethnographique du Globe by Ad. Balbi. [r] Essai Statistique du Portugal.

the deputies of the town being averse to war with Castille, the king informed them that he would conclude a peace, or continue the war according to the advice of the people. Lastly, they exercised an authority, which, in the present day, might be considered revolutionary in some countries, for in a period of five hundred and twenty-five years, the Portuguese cortes elected five kings; namely, Alphonso the First, count of Portugal, Alphonso the Third after the deposition of his brother Sancho the Second by the pope, John the First after the extinction of the lawful branch of the Burgundian dynasty, John the Fourth of Braganza after the expulsion of the Spaniards, and Peter the Second after Alphonso the Sixth was declared incapable of reigning. Had every class of the community been represented in the cortes, and had it been made imperative on the sovereign to convoke such assemblies, the people need not have envied the English constitution; but the kings of Portugal have dispensed with them since the year 1687. Such was the state of the kingdom in 1821, when a new constitution, the work of a new cortes, nominated by electors chosen from all the citizens, established a representative government, equal, nay, superior in some respects to any of the same sort in Europe. The constitution was abolished in 1823; three years afterwards, Don Pedro, the emperor of Brazil, ascended the throne of Portugal, and granted his subjects a representative government, more monarchical in its tendency than the former, but of such a nature as to satisfy the enlightened part of the nation.

Having endeavoured to describe the moral and political state of the Portuguese people, it remains for us to mention the principal towns and others which, although inferior in the number of their inhabitants, merit the notice of the traveller or historian. The statistical tables at the end of the present chapter, may enable the reader to estimate the force and resources of the kingdom.

Lisbon. The port of Lisbon, from the magnificent spectacle which it affords, may be compared to any in Europe; mariners consider it one of the best anchoring places in the world. It is defended by fort Bugio, situated on an island at the mouth of the Tagus, and by fort Juliao on the right bank of the same river. The town rises like an amphitheatre on the right bank, and occupies a space about three leagues in length, and more than one in breadth. The large bay formed by the Tagus, affords only a narrow and dangerous passage for ships; indeed, vessels seldom approach it without being provided with experienced pilots, a precaution rendered necessary by the bar which its waters form against the ocean.

Population. It might be supposed from the sight of this large capital, that it contained many more inhabitants than it really does, but it is well known that the population does not exceed two hundred and sixty thousand souls. It is divided into two towns, the first or the old is formed by many tortuous, narrow, and dirty streets, which were not injured during the great calamity in the year 1775; the streets in the new town are broad and straight, and their number is daily increasing. The number of streets in both the towns amounts to five hundred and sixty-six; there are besides sixty squares, only twelve of which merit the name. The two most remarkable are the *Praca do Commercio*, and the *Praca do Rocio;* the first is bounded on one side by the Tagus, and adorned with fine edifices, such as the treasury, the custom-house, the India-house, the admiralty, the royal library, and other buildings that are not yet finished. The other, or the *Praca do Rocio*, is smaller than the last; it is situated near the court of the Inquisition, in which are now contained the offices of the different ministers, and the prisons of the holy office. If the royal

Buildings. palace in the suburbs of Ajuda was completed according to its original plan, it might be doubtful that there was another in

Europe of so large a size. The king of Portugal possesses two other residences in Lisbon, the palace of *Bemposta*, in which he gives audience, and that of *Necessidades*, now set apart for foreign princes. The other buildings are the naval arsenal, the palace of *Calhariz*, now the place in which the academy of sciences hold their meetings, and the theatre of San Carlos, which in point of size at least, may be compared with the secondary theatres in the Italian towns. The principal churches are the cathedral or *Basilica de Santa Maria*, an old edifice that was repaired after the last earthquake, the church belonging to the convent of Jesus, remarkable for the boldness of its dome, perhaps the finest modern building in Lisbon, and lastly, the church of the martyrs, a monument to the glory of the Portuguese, erected at the place where Alphonso the First defeated the Moors.

Lisbon possesses several useful institutions; but the first in point of importance is the naval observatory, an establishment which has contributed to the advancement of celestial physics. Some of the others are the royal naval school, the academies of naval architecture, fortification, artillery, and drawing, the school of sculpture, and the college of surgery. We may also mention the commercial school, the royal military college, and an institution dependant on the monastery of *St. Vincent de Fora*, where the ancient and modern languages, geometry, physics, and philosophy, are taught. There are, besides these, a royal school of physics and drawing, in which the course of instruction lasts five years, and a musical seminary, (*Seminario Musical*,) for the purpose of promoting composition, and also vocal and instrumental music. The seminaries connected with religion, are the royal college of St. Patrick, a place of education for Irish missionaries, the royal college of catechumens, founded in 1579, for the instruction of converted infidels in the principles and doctrines of Christianity, St. Antony's and St. Peter's schools for orphans and poor children, and other institutions of the same nature under the direction of the clergy or the different monasteries.

Scientific Institutions.

The royal academy of sciences at Lisbon, holds the first rank among the scientific institutions in the kingdom. A society for the encouragement of national industry has lately been established in the town. It possesses also public libraries, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, and different scientific collections, which are much inferior to others of the same kind in the principal capitals of Europe.

Police.

It is not more than twenty or thirty years that persons were not safe on the streets of Lisbon; murders were committed in open day, and murderers found protection by flying into the sanctuary; at night passengers were stopped by soldiers who demanded charity, and took by force the money which any ventured to refuse. There were then no patroles, no police to check these disorders; now that the best means are employed to insure the public safety, murders and even thefts have become very rare.

Neighbourhood of Lisbon. Aqueduct of Bemfica.

No edifice in Lisbon can be compared with the aqueduct of Bemfica, (*agoas livres*,) by which the water that the inhabitants consume, is conveyed into the city. It has been considered the most magnificent work that has been executed in modern times, and it is not certainly inferior to any ancient work of the same kind. The length of the aqueduct exceeds fifty-six thousand three hundred and eighty feet, the largest arch is equal to two hundred and six feet in height, and the opening or breadth to one hundred. The country round Lisbon is not only agreeable from the fine sites in different directions, historical recollections are connected with it. Oeiras, the country seat given by King Joseph to the Marquis of Pombal, was inhabited by the same monarch in 1775, and the minister availed himself of his temporary residence to change a village-fair into one of a different kind, where the

products of Portuguese industry are now exhibited, an ingenious idea, that has been imitated elsewhere, and has excited a salutary emulation in other countries, particularly in France. Cintra is celebrated for the capitulation in virtue of which, the French army left Portugal in 1808. Mafra, on the western side of the chain connected with Monte Junto, is remarkable for the convent, church, and palace, built by John the Fifth, in order to fulfil the vow which he had taken before the birth of his son. These three buildings, the work of a foreign architect, and embellished by painters and sculptors of different nations, form perhaps, the finest edifice in the kingdom. Loires, at three leagues from Lisbon, is well known for its plantations, which yield the best oranges in Portugal. Campo Grande is a place of resort for the Portuguese nobility; it stands on a plain surrounded with gardens and trees, where, in the summer season, the court and the nobles display their equipages. The different places that have been mentioned, are not privileged towns, (*citades*,) but burghs or small towns without municipalities, (*villas*.)

Other Towns.

Few other towns of any importance are situated in the rest of Estremadura. *Leiria*, however, may be mentioned; it is not far from the palace of king Denys, on whom the Portuguese conferred the title of Great. The convent built by John the First, a noble monument of Normano-Gothic architecture, serves to adorn the burgh of Batalha: within the same building may be seen the mausoleum of its founder, and several dirty chapels, destined for the sepulchres of kings. The large burgh of Santarem, built on a hill, and defended by an old fortress, was long the residence of the Portuguese sovereigns. Lastly, Setubal, although it does not possess the rank of a city, may be considered an important town. Some antiquaries suppose that *Troja*, a headland at a short distance from the mouth of the Sado, where several remains of antiquity have been discovered, was the site of a Phenician colony.

Province of Beira. Coimbra.

Coimbra is situated in the province of Beira, on a hill which commands the Mondego. The interior of the town may be said to be as dismal as the neighbouring country is agreeable. It was a place of considerable importance under the Romans, the Alani and the Moors; it is the capital of the province; the public buildings, the number of useful institutions, together with the celebrity of the university, render it not unworthy of its title. The small town of Aveiro, at the mouth of the Vonga, is beginning to recover the maritime importance which it seemed to have for ever lost. The ancient city of Viseu, situated on the mountains from which the Mondego takes its source, is the residence of a bishop, and carries on a considerable trade in cloth and jewellery. Lamego lies at the northern extremity of the province, in a fruitful district between Mount Penude and the river Duero. It was there that the cortes met in 1144, and the same assembly established a constitution by which the royal authority was confined within due limits: that constitution Alphonso the First swore to maintain.

Province of Entre Douro e Mino.

The province of Entre Douro e Mino is smaller than either of the two last; Braga, or the metropolis, stands on a height between the Cavado and the Deste. The principal buildings are the archbishop's palace, the seminary, and the cathedral: there are besides several imposing remains of Roman grandeur. Porto, or Oporto, the second town in the kingdom, rises on a magnificent site at the mouth of the Duero, on two hills, called the *Se* and the *Victoria*. It consists of the low and high town; it is divided into five quarters, two of which are encompassed with a wall thirty feet in height; the three others are open. Several large squares, fine churches, different public buildings, such as the court of appeal, the town-house, the diocesan palace, the royal hospitals and extensive store-houses are the ornaments of the commercial city.

Grimaraens, an industrious town, was in ancient times the capital of the kingdom.

Province of Tras-os-Montes.

Miranda, formerly *Cambetum Lubicanarum*, a small episcopal city, is the chief town in Tras-os-Montes. Moncorvo, the ancient *Forum Narbasorum*, is ill built, but contains twice as many inhabitants as the last town. Braganza, or Bragança, the ancient *Brigantium*, rises in the midst of a fruitful plain. It was within its walls that Don Pedro, the Justiciary, married secretly the unfortunate Ines de Castro. Chaves is built on a height near the Tamega, which flows under a bridge of eighteen arches, built by Trajan; the place was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its mineral waters, which they called *Aquæ Flaviæ Turodorum*.

Province of Alen-Tejo.

Alen-Tejo is not less mountainous than Beira; although more extensive, it is three times less populous; and being the poorest province in the kingdom, it may be readily supposed that it does not contain many important towns. Evora, the capital, and the chief town in the diocess of an archbishop, is styled the second city in Portugal. The population, it is true, does not exceed ten thousand souls; but the vain title has been conferred on it, because several kings made it the place of their residence. It is situated on a height in the chain which forms the continuation of the Serra de Estremos. The ancient names of *Ebora* and *Cerealis*, as Pliny calls it, announced its prosperity. Flattery induced the municipal magistrates to give it the name of *Liberalitas Julia*. The imperial liberality consisted in building monuments with part of the gold that was exacted from the conquered countries: the remains of some are still to be seen at Evora. The aqueduct attributed to Quintus Sertorius is remarkable for its fine state of preservation. A circular monument at the extremity of the town, resembles, in the elegance of its proportions, the Lantern of Demosthenes at Athens. Most of the antiquities discovered at Beja, have been collected in a museum. Estremos carries on a trade in pottery, and earthen vases of a particular kind, so porous that they are used for lowering the temperature of water by promoting evaporation. The ancient town of Elvas, the strongest place in Portugal, rises on a steep hill, at two leagues from the right bank of the Guadiana. Some remains of antiquity are still to be observed in Beja, the ancient *Pax Julia*, a town built by the Romans.

Province of Algarva.

Algarva, a small province which the Portuguese sovereigns have denominated a kingdom, contains only four towns worthy of notice. Faro, the capital, a well built city, with a harbour at the mouth of the *Valformosa*, exports a great quantity of oranges and other fruits. Tavira is situated on the coast, at eight leagues eastwards from Faro; it is almost wholly peopled by fishermen. Villa Nova de Portimao is a small but well-frequented seaport, at the distance of twelve leagues to the west of Faro. Lagos, in the middle of a fruitful district, possesses a harbour which, according to tradition, was dug by the Carthaginians. Sagre owes its name to the *Sacrum Promontorium*, now Cape St. Vincent. Lastly, we may mention the small town of Monchique, on the Sierra of the same name; its romantic situation and medicinal springs have of late years rendered it a place of resort.

Portuguese foreign possessions.

The Portuguese foreign possessions are the Archipelago of the Azores, the province of Madeira, including Madeira, Porto Santo, and other neighbouring islands. It possesses, besides the province of Cape Verd, or the islands St. Jago, Fogo-Brava, San Nicolao, Santo Antao, Boavista, Mayo, San Vicente, Sal, and Santa Luzia. The principal places in the Portuguese colony of Senegambia, are Cacheu, Bissao, Geba, Farim, and Zeguichor. The kingdom of Angola and Congo is another settlement belonging to the same people; it comprehends Angola, and several other stations. Prince's Island and the Island of St.

Thomas form a small province. The province of Mosambique contains several important factories. The Portuguese possessions in Asia are the viceroyalty of India, of which Goa is the capital, the province of Salsete and Bardez, the government of Damao and Diu, and the factories of Suater and Macao on the coast of Malabar, the island of Timor, Adomear, and Oende Menor in Oceana.

Commerce of Portugal.

These insignificant remains of the Portuguese power, and the rising empire of Brazil, of which the independence was rather an advantage than a calamity to the mother country, serve to maintain the commerce of Portugal. The imports which it sends into the same countries, amount in value to £3,625,000, and the articles it derives from them exceed £3,000,000. The imports from other countries may be estimated at £3,875,000, and the exports at £3,000,000. As it possesses comparatively few commercial resources in its agriculture, it may be inferred that the products of manufacturing industry form a considerable item in the sums now specified. It is in reality not so poor in such products as some political economists have supposed. No comparison can be made between its manufactures and those of more industrious states; but if, notwithstanding the privileges England enjoys, the Portuguese have been able to compete with the English in different manufactures, it may be concluded that industry cannot be at a very low ebb; on the contrary, judicious encouragement, and a better system of policy, are only wanting to bring it to a high degree of perfection. The reader may form a tolerably correct opinion of the sources of Portuguese wealth from the following tables.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

PORTUGAL.

Population of the principal Cities and Towns.[*]

PROVINCE OF ESTREMADURA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas or Districts.

Lisbon, the capital	260,000	Sardoal, V.	3,300
Torres Vedras, V.	3,400	Abrantes, V.	4,900
Castanheira, V.	700	Ourem, V.	3,100
Villa Franca, V.	4,600	Chao da Couce, V.	1,300
Alemquer, V.	2,600	Santarem, V.	7,800
Chamusca, V.	3,000	Torres Novas, V.	4,200
Cintra, V.	3,700	Setubal, V.	14,800
Leiria, C.	2,000	Cezimbra, V.	4,200
Pombal, V.	4,800	Almada, V.	4,200
Alcobaca, V.	1,300	Aldea-Gallega, V.	3,500
Thomar, V.	3,700		

PROVINCE OF BEIRA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas.

Coimbra, chief town	15,200	Figueira or Figueira da Foz, V.	6,400
Miranda da Corvo, V.	3,900		

[*] The cities or citades are denoted by the letter C, the burghs or villas by V.

Population continued.

Louzaa, V.	3,100	Lamego, C.	8,900
Penella, V.	3,500	Arouca, V.	5,500
Arganil, V.	1,700	San Martinho dos Mouros, V.	4,800
Aveiro, C.	4,100	Paiva, V.	6,600
Mira, V.	6,000	Pinhel, C.	1,700
Ilhavo, V.	7,300	Trancoso, V.	1,200
Sousa, V.	3,700	Guarda, C.	2,400
Feira, V.	1,600	Covilhao, V.	6,400
Ovar, V.	10,400	Linhares, V.	800
Viseu, C.	9,200	Castello Branco, V.	5,700

PROVINCE OF MINO OR ENTRE DOURO E MINO.

Divided into seven Comarcas.

Braga, chief town	14,400	Grimaraens, V.	6,100
Prado, V.	6,500	Vianna, V.	8,000
Porto, or Oporto, C.	70,000	Barcellos, V.	3,900
San Joao da Foz, V.	3,300	Villa do Conde, V.	3,100
Pavoa da Varzim, V.	5,700	Eixo, V.	3,100
Pedrozo, V.	3,500	Valença	1,600
Penafiel da Sousa or Arrifana, C.	2,300		

PROVINCE OF TRAS-OS-MONTES.

Divided into four Comarcas.

Miranda, chief town	500	Braganza, C.	3,700
Moncorvo, V.	1,600	Chaves, V.	5,200
Villa Real, V.	4,000		

PROVINCE OF ALEN-TEJO.

Divided into eight Comarcas.

Evora, chief town	10,000	Elvas, C.	10,000
Estremoz, V.	5,500	Compo Maior, V.	4,500
Beja, C.	5,400	Portalegre, C.	6,100
Moura, V.	3,800	Castello de Vide, V.	5,700
Sepra, V.	4,600	Crato, V.	1,200
Ourique, V.	2,400	Sertao, V.	3,300
Villa Vicosa, V.	3,500	Aviz, V.	1,400
Borba, V.	3,400		

KINGDOM OF ALGARVA.

Divided into three Comarcas.

Faro, metropolis	8,400	Loulé, V.	8,200
Lagoa or Alagoa, V.	3,000	Lagos, C.	6,800
Tavira, C.	8,600	Villa Nova da Portinao, V.	3,200

Population of the Portuguese Provinces in 1826, *according to their surface.*

Provinces.	Surface in square leagues.	Population.	Inhabitants for every square league.
Mino	375	810,000	2,160
Tras-os-Montes	531	285,000	536
Beira	1,125	940,000	836
Estremadura	1,297	745,000	574
Alen-tejo	1,344	330,800	245
Algarva	250	104,000	416
	4,922[t]	3,214,000	653[u]

MONASTERIES.

	Convents.	Monks.	Revenue.
Military orders, monks, regular and secular canons	29	1,160	*l.*87,600
Mendicant orders - - - -	167	2,350	4,500
Endowed mendicants - - -	155	2,070	65,000
Missionaries - - - -	9	180	3,000
	360	5,760	160,100

Produce of the Land belonging to the above Convents.

	Alqueires	or	Quarters.
Wheat - - - -	62,600	or	4,410
Idem second crop - - -	43,800	or	2,086
Barley - - - - -	23,900	or	1,138
Leguminous plants - - -	1,100	or	50
	Almudes	or	Hogsheads.
Wine - - - - -	30,000	or	2,062
Oil - - - - - -	16,000	or	1,412

Estimated value of these products, *l.* 30,000.

Convents for women.

Convents of different orders - - -	126	
Convents of Recalhimentos (hospitals) - -	12	
Professed nuns - - - -		2,725
Commandadeiras (retired sisters) - - -		162
Novices - - - - -		55
Seigas (sisters) - - - - -		151
Senhoras seculares (secular ladies) - -		164
Educandas (pupils) - - - -		739
Creadas (domestics) - - - -		1,907
Total number of convents	138	5,903

Revenue - - *l.* 188,750.

Produce of the Lands belonging to the above orders.

	Alqueires	or	Quarters.
Wheat - - -	49,500	or	2,360
Barley - - - -	33,000	or	1,590

[t] Twenty-five of these leagues are equal to a degree, consequently each of them is equal to 2 + 2-5 geographical miles.

[u] If the rest of Portugal were as populous as the province of Mino, it might contain 10,591,520 inhabitants.

	Almudes	or Hogsheads.
Wine - - -	3,900	or 246
Oil - - - -	6,300	or 433

Estimated value of other products, *l.* 2,605.
Estimated value of all the land produce, *l.* 15,105.

Table of the Male population of Portugal in 1826, *according to their conditions and employments.*

Secular clergy - - -	30,000	47,500
Regular Idem - - - -	17,500	
Persons employed by government -	10,250	20,600
Magistrates, advocates, notaries, bailiffs -	9,500	
Persons employed in the hospitals -	850	
Teachers of different sciences and arts -	350	12,050
Schoolmasters. - - -	1,850	
Students of divinity under sixteen years of age	3,100	
Physicians, surgeons, and druggists -	5,700	
Artists - - - -	1,000	
Proprietors and rentholders - -		75,000
Merchants and retailers - - -	8,500	30,300
Muleteers, wagoners, couriers, &c. -	3,100	
Sailors and fishermen - - -	18,700	
Peasants and proprietors cultivating their own lands	120,000	601,500
Farmers and peasants cultivating lands on lease	169,809	
Day labourers - - - -	268,750	
Shepherds and other farm servants -	43,750	
Masters and workmen in vegetable substances	57,800	204,200
Idem Idem animal substance	80,600	
Idem Idem mineral substances	18,000	
Idem Idem different substances	7,750	
House servants, valets, &c. - -	58,750	118,600
Individuals not classed - -	56,200	
Prisoners, and persons condemned to labour -	1,850	
Military and naval force - -	35,000	
Total number		1,142,950

Portuguese Navy in 1821.

Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Charuas or Transports
4	11	7	6	4

Value of the articles manufactured in Portugal, and exported to Brazil and the colonies in 1819.

	Value in reis.	in *l.*	*s.*
Cotton stuffs - - -	456,269,660	118,818	2
Woollen - - -	40,615,660	10,577	
Silk - - - -	250,443,415	65,440	
Gold and silver - -	72,218,860	18,807	
Linens, &c. - - -	9,813,680	2,555	3
Different articles - -	413,401,141	107,656	11
Sum total,	1,242,762,416	*l.* 423,853	16

Number of Students and Pupils in the different Schools and Colleges in 1820.

University and Royal College at Coimbra - -	1,604
All the schools under the directory of studies - -	29,684

Naval and Commercial Academy at Oporto	315
Commercial Academy at Lisbon	151
Marine Academy	300
Marine Observatory	60
Royal School of naval architecture	15
of fortification, artillery and drawing	100
Military College	200
College of Surgery	360
Schools under the monastery of St. Vincent da Foro	242
Royal schools under the congregation of the oratory	200
Schools of grammar, rhetoric, and philosophy	155
Arabic School	2
Royal College of St. Antony and St. Peter	50
Royal School of drawing and civil architecture	20
of sculpture	6
Musical Seminary	15
Gratuitous School for the dumb	21
Military School, into which private soldiers are admitted	4,000
	37,500

Public Libraries.

Lisbon Royal Library	85,000	volumes.
Library of Jesus	32,000	
of St. Francisco	20,000	
of St. Vincent da Fora	22,000	
of Necessidades	28,000	
Coimbra Library of the University	38,000	
of Santa Cruz	36,000	
Porto Library of the Diocess	32,000	
Tibaens	25,000	
Evora	20,000	

Finance.

Revenue.	National Debt.
l. 2,250,000	*l.* 6,670,000

BOOK CXXXIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula. Kingdom of Spain.

Origin of the Spanish monarchy.

PELAGIUS raised the standard of the cross, and passed the mountains in Austuria to rescue some portion of Spain from the Moorish yoke. The example of patriotic devotedness was imitated by other chiefs, and the districts restored to christianity and independence, were erected into petty kingdoms. Although all of them were united under Ferdinand and Isabella, the different crowns retained their titles, geographical limits, as well as certain privileges which serve to recall the glorious epoch of their origin, and to account for the ancient division of Spain into fourteen principal provinces, still denominated kingdoms, and subdivided into smaller provinces.

The superficial extent of Spain, and the limits by which it is separated from Portugal, have been already mentioned; but the amount of its population has not been stated: nothing has hitherto been said of the inhabitants, their resources, commerce, in short, of whatever constitutes the strength or weakness of the nation.

Population of Spain.

According to the latest work published in Spain,[a] the population of the country, together with that of the Baleares, amounted in 1826 to 13,902,234 individuals, including the clergy, the naval and military forces, mendicants, prisoners, and the people in workhouses or hospitals. But it is a hopeless task to ascertain the number of inhabitants in Spain; the elements on which the calculation depends are wanting; for the registers, it is well known, are very inaccurately kept by the curates. The number of ecclesiastics, although many convents were destroyed when the country was in the hands of the French, or from the year 1808 to 1814, is nearly equal to 150,000 individuals.

Religion.

The Catholic religion is the only one acknowledged in the country; the dignitaries are the archbishop of Toledo, also entitled primate of Spain, eight archbishops, and fifty-one bishops. There are besides sixty-one cathedral and a hundred and fourteen collegiate churches, of which the canons and abbots are vested with almost episcopal authority.

Physical and moral character of the Spaniards.

To judge correctly of the physical and moral character of the Spaniards, it is necessary to examine the different provinces. If it may be so said, the shades are better defined in each Spanish province than in other European kingdoms; because the low state of industry, the want of roads, and the natural barriers that separate states, are so many obstacles to that frequent intercourse and communication which diffuse a uniform character over a whole population. Thus he who crosses Spain in different directions, cannot fail to observe the light and graceful forms of the Biscayans, the lofty stature of the Gallicians and Catalonians, the dark complexions of the Estremadurans, the strength of the Castillians, and the pale complexions of the Murcians. The women are, in general, graceful and well made; if their beauty has been much commended, it may perhaps be attributed to their animated and expressive features. Differences not less obvious are observable in the moral character of the people, in the different provinces. The Biscayans are haughty, irrascible, passionate;[b] the Gallicians are melancholy and unsocial, but laborious and brave; the Catalonians are impetuous and indocile; the inhabitants of Arragon are devoted to their country, and attached to its ancient customs; the Castillians are grave and proud; the Estremadurans indolent and vain; the Andalusians may be remarked for their arrogance; they have been called the Gascons of Spain; the Murcians are slow and dull, the most ignorant, and at the same time the most suspicious people in the Peninsula; the Valencians, on the other hand, are gay and inconstant, ingenuous and industrious. As to the people generally,[c] the most marked traits in the Spanish character, are circumspection, pride, honesty, great patience and resolution in their undertakings, and an aversion to every improvement, unless its utility be very apparent.

Language and literature.

It may be inferred from the penetration and perseverance of the Spaniards, that they would have excelled in the culture of the exact sciences; but the impulse given to natural philosophy was checked by the inquisition. Thus the road was shut to the most attractive departments of knowledge, and the brilliant imagination of the people exhausted itself in the culture of letters. The most ancient romances

[a] Diccionario Geografico e Statistico de Espagna y Portugal, by Don Sebastian de Minano.

[b] Laborde, Universarie de l'Espagne, tom. v. [c] See Antillon and Minano.

form part of Spanish literature; at an early period it consisted principally of such works and the national songs recording the great achievements of the Cid. The Spanish language is expressive and harmonious, although several guttural words have been imported from the Arabic. It may be divided into five dialects; the most ancient is still spoken in the kingdom of Leon and Castille; but the dialect of Toledo is the most pure, and the one most generally used since the time of Charles the Fifth. The same dialect has been immortalized by the inimitable Cervantes; by Quevedo, who to the graces of art unites the sublimity of genius; by Guevara, from whom Le Sage has taken his tales;[4] by Lopez de Vega, the author of eighteen hundred plays; and by the celebrated Calderone, whose comedies have formed the groundwork of a thousand others.

Sciences and arts. | Little attention has been paid to science; indeed it is only possible to mention a few learned lawyers, well informed physicians, laborious botanists, and uselessly profound theologians. Spain has made greater advances in the fine arts; it has produced engravers little inferior to any of Italy or the Netherlands. In painting, Murillo almost rivals Van-Dyck; Coello has been compared to Paul Veronese, and the graceful Coreno enjoys the title of the Spanish Titian. Herrara, Arnal, and John Battista, hold the first rank among Spanish architects; Meno, Alvares, and Toledo, among sculptors.

Government. | Before Charles the Fifth succeeded to the throne of Spain, the government was a limited monarchy; the powers of the crown were restrained by the cortes, those provincial assemblies of which the origin has been already explained,* and in which the privileged classes were only represented. The privileges of these assemblies were gradually destroyed by the princes of the houses of Austria and Bourbon. Their power and influence had been wholly abolished long before 1808, when Napoleon compelled Charles the Fourth and his son Ferdinand the Seventh to renounce all the claims which they or their successors might have to the crown, and proclaimed his brother Joseph, king of Spain and the Indies. The obstinate and brave resistance of the Spanish people against a foreign usurper, gave additional courage to the members of the provincial juntos, to whom the direction of the war was committed. The most important of these assemblies was held at Cadiz; the members established a council of regency, to which they resigned their authority; an extraordinary cortes was soon afterwards convoked, and that constitution framed, which, although very defective, was acknowledged in 1812, by the powers leagued against France. To reward the heroic efforts of the Spaniards in the cause of independence, Ferdinand swore to maintain the constitution; being at liberty to modify or improve it, he disregarded his oath, and the constitution was abolished. The inquisition had been suppressed; that odious tribunal was called anew into existence; the members of cortes were declared inviolable; the king sent them into exile. Discontent succeeded the enthusiasm that had accompanied the return of the sovereign, insurrections extended through the country, and on the first of January, 1820, the constitution of the cortes was proclaimed by the army in the island of Leon. Such were the conditions offered to Ferdinand, and he was obliged to accept them; he requested the right of modifying the constitution, but the eagerness with which he had formerly abolished it, occasioned distrust; the constitution was declared unalterable. At the same time, the partisans of absolute power busied themselves in exciting the people, or in creating disturbances, in which ecclesiastics and monks were not ashamed to take a part inconsistent with their duty, and disgraceful to their sacred character. The French cabinet, on the supposition that the Spaniards were not sufficiently enlightened to enjoy

[4] Le Diable Boiteux. * See the preceding chapter.

the blessings of a representative government, thought fit to interfere and to restore the ancient system. The Duke of Angouleme, having entered Spain at the head of an army which was nowhere opposed by the intrepid bands, so formidable in the time of Napoleon, dissolved the cortes, and liberated the king. The memorable ordinance of Andujar was passed by the same general; thus giving an example of great moderation, wishing no other recompense for the treasures that France had spent, than the safety and protection of those who had supported the constitutional government. It is almost unnecessary to add that his intentions were never carried into effect.

Power of the crown.

The king possesses at present an unlimited authority; different councils have been created, but the most important, or the council of state, was formed in the year 1825. Justice is administered throughout the kingdom by supreme courts that are held in the metropolis of each province. The courts of Valladolid and Grenada are entitled *chanceries*, that of Navarre is called a council, and the rest tribunals, (*audiencias.*) The captain-general of a province is *ex officio* the president of a court. Whatever may tend to recall the time of the cortes has been abolished; that the people may believe all authority to be centred in the king, the towns are no longer suffered to elect their mayors or magistrates; this privilege, the last of all those which served to remind the Spaniards of a better system, was taken away in 1823.

Agriculture.

Industry and agriculture, long neglected in Spain, cannot be supposed to have made much progress during the last twenty years of wars and revolutions to which the unhappy country has been exposed.

The swarms of grasshoppers that destroy the fields, are a minor evil, if compared with the obstinacy and prejudices of the husbandmen. Foreigners attribute incorrectly the low state of agriculture to the indolence of the people; such an opinion, says M. Minano, was never entertained by those who have seen the Spaniards toiling and labouring in the almost inaccessible mountains of the Asturias, Gallicia, and Catalonia, or in the arid ravines of Guipuscoa, Biscay, and Navarre, in the marshes of Valencia, or in the burning plains of Andalusia and Estremadura. The men, who endure so much fatigue for so small wages, cannot be thought either indolent or indifferent.

Products.

Spain, one of the most fruitful countries in Europe, might also from the variety of its products be considered the most wealthy; wheat, secale, barley, maize, and lint, are cultivated in almost all the provinces; but although the abstinence and frugality of the people are proverbial, the crops are insufficient for the consumption. Wheat is most common in Leon, Estremadura, the two Castilles, Arragon, Andalusia, and Murcia. Secale is raised in many parts of Biscay, Navarre, and Catalonia. Oats are neglected or despised; instead of that grain, the Spaniards in Grenada and Seville give barley to their cattle. The inhabitants of Gallicia cultivate lint, a plant that does not appear to be very common in the other provinces. Oil and soda are the principal products of the southern provinces on the shores of the Mediterranean; the others are sumach, and different esculent plants of an admirable quality. In the same part of the country are seen fields of saffron; the rice plantations appear like so many waving plains, and the cotton shrub thrives as well as on its aboriginal soil. The mulberry trees are very luxuriant, and their leaves afford rich nourishment to the bombix; it is thus easy to explain why the silk it secretes is so valuable. Rice abounds in Catalonia, and in the kingdom of Valencia. The last province and Andalusia are the finest in Spain; trees of different sorts are covered with delicious fruit; the sugar-cane grows near the cotton plant, and numerous olives furnish the oil that forms at present an

important branch of commerce. The honey in the province of Cuenca was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its whiteness and agreeable flavour, on account of which it was called *mel rosmarinum*. Anise, maize, and different vegetables useful in dying, are the principal riches of Murcia; barilla, the plant from which the inhabitants extract soda, is almost confined to Valencia, a province that has been styled from its culture, the garden of Spain. The lands in Arragon near the Ebro abound in grain, saffron, and different fruits, the forests too are well kept; but at a distance from the river, the soil is arid, and the greater part of it uncultivated. Navarre may be distinguished by its extensive vallies covered with rich pastures. The Vascongadan provinces, and particularly Biscay, are remarkable for their fertility and the industry of their inhabitants. The food of the peasantry in Gallicia consists principally of maize, chesnuts, and potatoes; the last plant was first imported into the same province from which it has been diffused throughout Europe. Naval timber is obtained from the forests in the Asturias, and numerous herds are fattened on the pastures. As to the two Castilles, the old is arid and sterile; the other is warmer and not so unfruitful.

Vineyards. The lands in almost every part of Spain are favourable to the culture of the vine. The excess of the vintage above the quantity consumed in the country, forms a considerable branch of the export trade, and it might be still much more important, if in making the wine and cultivating the grape, the people availed themselves of the improvements that have been known to chemists and agriculturalists during more than twenty years.[f] The best wines are those of *Peralta* in Navarre, *Ribadavia* and *Betanzos* in Gallicia, *Manzanares* and *Val de Penas* in La Mancha, *Xeres*, *San Lucar*, and *Rota* in Seville, *Cabra*, *Lucena*, and almost all the district of *Campine* in Cordova, *Malaga* in Grenada, and lastly *Alicante* in Valentia. Although these wines are held in great estimation, the quantity exported bears no proportion to the brandy that is sent from the same parts of the country to the different ports in Spain.

Sheep. The little profit that Spain now receives from its wool, affords a sad contrast to the treasures it derived for the same article at a very early period. It would not be easy to enumerate the fatal effects of the war which France maintained against the Spaniards during the imperial government, and if it were at all necessary to account for the decay in the wool trade, other causes that have contributed in a greater or less degree, might also be mentioned. Now that Spanish sheep are imported into France and other countries where the breed is perpetuated, it is difficult to conceive that Spain can ever again arrive at the same pre-eminence in the same trade. But it has been proved that the merinos are fraudulently exported, it cannot be doubted that such an evil might be checked by a wise administration; if it were prevented, and greater encouragement afforded to the woollen manufactures, Spain might at least afford to produce articles equally good, and at as moderate prices as any of her rivals. The breed of sheep, it is not less certain, might be still more improved in the same country, and the privileges of the *Mesta*[g] need not interfere with the interests of the landed proprietor. The merinos are divided into two classes, those that are stationary, and those that migrate; the former may amount in all to eight millions; the number of the latter, including the flocks that belong to the clergy as well as to the laymen, is still greater.[h] Two shepherds drive a flock of a thousand or twelve hundred merinos; they leave the heights of old Castille in the

[f] See Minano's Geographical and Statistical Dictionary, article SPAIN.

[g] The Mesta is a society that meets every year; the president is a counsellor of state, and the members are the owners of the numerous flocks that are conducted for the sake of pasturage into different provinces.

[h] See the statistical tables at the end of the chapter.

month of October, and lay waste the plains of Estremadura and Andalusia until the month of May, then the sheep are driven back to the mountains. There are not less than sixteen thousand shepherds,[i] almost as ignorant as their flocks; they exercise a despotic authority, and commit many abuses in the districts through which they pass. The length of their stay in any part of the country depends on the quantity of food they find for their sheep. A space equal to two hundred and forty feet in breadth is allotted to each flock by the ordinances of the Mesta; once arrived at the end of their journey, the sheep are put into pastures, and the Mesta regulates in a very arbitrary manner the rate of rent payable to the proprietors.

The depopulation of certain provinces, and the decay of agriculture, have been attributed not without reason to these annual migrations; indeed Biscay, the Asturias, Gallicia, and Burgos, not being exposed to the same calamity, are better peopled and better cultivated than the provinces in which the shepherds and their flocks resort.

Sheep shearing.

The sheep are shorn after the shepherds return from their summer quarters. It is a very busy time, and the greater part of the inhabitants are employed. The work is done in large sheds that may hold a flock of forty or sixty thousand sheep. One may judge of the number of hands employed, since it requires a hundred and twenty-five persons to shear a thousand sheep; some are occupied in cutting the wool, and others in dividing it into four sorts according to the different degrees of fineness. The sheep shearing season is not less joyous than the vintage in the most fruitful districts of Spain.

Oxen.

Several parts of the country are ill provided with horned cattle, particularly Catalonia, Arragon, Navarre, and Biscay, which depend principally for their supplies on France. Many oxen are fattened on the rich pastures in the central districts of Gallicia. Fine cattle are reared in the Asturias; there the cow is a most useful animal to the peasantry, the milk is converted into butter and cheese; indeed a sufficient quantity might be produced for the consumption of Spain, if the inhabitants knew how to salt or preserve it. The symmetry of the oxen in Andalusia was admired by the ancients, unnumbered herds of the same kind may still be seen on its fertile meadows. Pigs are very common on the Aracena, Constatina, and other mountains in the same province; and the bacon of Leon, as well as Gallicia, is much prized throughout Spain; its delicate taste has been attributed to the sweet acorns on which the pigs are fed.

Horses.

Although the mules and horses of the same country are not in so great repute as they once were, the Asturias may still boast of their light and spirited ponies, while the horses of Andalusia retain the strength that distinguishes the Arab breed. The mules in these provinces are hardy and robust, qualities they derive from the ass, which has degenerated less in Spain than in France.

Wild animals.

Almost all the wild animals in southern France are common to Spain. The mountains and plains abound in game; the wild boar, the bear, and different kinds of deer are found in the Gallician mountains and Asturian forests. Hares, rabbits, red partridges, and bustards are common in Andalusia; the wolf still frequents all the wooded and mountainous districts in the country. The chamois and the lynx find shelter on the Pyrenees and the mountains of Cuenca. The wild animals in Murcia and the southern parts of Spain, are the African mousemon and wild cat, the porcupine and scorpion, (*truxalis nasutus*,) and the cameleon. A naturalist[k] having observed the striking similarity between

[i] M. Al. de Laborde estimates their number at forty thousand, but he includes those that remain at home as well as the others who travel.

[k] Bory de St. Vincent, Guide de Voyageur en Espagne.

the zoology of southern Spain and northern Africa, is led by the analogy to conclude that the continents now separated by the Straits at Gibraltar, were once united.

Grasshoppers. Estremadura and Andalusia are sometimes desolated by swarms of grasshoppers; but it cannot be difficult to destroy them, for they are never seen in great numbers until some time after their first appearance, still the opportunity has been often neglected, and insects from the plains of Arabia lay waste the country when it is impossible to check the devastation.

Fish. The rivers as well as the coasts of Spain, abound in fish; in this way Gallicia derives its wealth; the sardel fisheries are perhaps as valuable as any others in that province. The sardel is salted so as to render it fit for exportation; very many of them are consumed in Spain, France, and the Levant. The tunny fisheries in the same province are also very profitable; indeed, the importance of the fisheries on the southern and eastern coasts of Spain depends on the high prices given for tunnies and anchovies.

Spain admits less of a vague or general description than any other country in Europe. The people in France, England, and Italy are distinguished by national characters, of which the colours are too well defined to be ever confounded; but shades more or less obscure mark the Spaniards of the different provinces, and contrasts more or less striking separate them from each other. To mark these shades and contrasts, to ascertain their influence on the moral and intellectual character of the Spanish people, has hitherto proved a stumbling block to many who have attempted to describe Spain, or to compare the Spaniards with the inhabitants of other countries in Europe. To give an accurate description, therefore, or at least one free from incorrect generalities, it is necessary that each division or province in Spain be separately examined.

Divisions. The kingdom has been divided into fourteen principal parts, each of which has its authorities, or separate administration, and several are subdivided into small provinces.[1] The disadvantages of

[1] The following are the general divisions:—

In the north.

1st. The kingdom of Navarre, a province.
2nd. The three Vascongades, or Biscayan provinces.
3d. The principality of the Austurias, a province.
4th. The kingdom of Gallicia, divided into seven provinces.
5th. The kingdom of Arragon, a province.
6th. The principality of Catalonia, a province.

In the centre.

7th. The kingdom of Leon, divided into six provinces.
8th. Old Castille, divided into five.
9th. Estremadura, a province.
10th. New Castille, divided into five provinces.
11th. Kingdom of Valencia, a province.

In the south.

12th. Andalusia, including the kingdoms of Cordova, Seville, Grenada, and the *New Population*, forming seven provinces.
13th. The kingdom of Murcia, a province.

In the Mediterranean.

14th. Balearic islands, in all forty-one provinces.

Spain was divided in 1822, conformably to a decree of the Cortes, into fifty-one provinces; Navarre was at the same time called the province of Pampeluna.

Three provinces were included in the Biscays, *Vittoria*, *San Sebastian*, and *Bilboa*.

One province, or Oviedo in the Austurias.

Those of *Corunna*, *Lugo*, *Vigo*, and *Orense* in Gallicia.

Those of *Villafranca*, *Leon*, *Zamora*, *Salamanca*, and *Palencia* in the kingdom of Leon.

Those of *Santander*, *Burgos*, *Logrono*, *Soria*, *Valladolid*, *Segovia*, and *Avila* in Old Castille.

Those of *Huesca*, *Teruel*, *Calatyud* and *Sarragossa* in Arragon.

Those of *Gerona*, *Barcelona*, *Tarragona*, and *Lerida* in Catalonia.

what has been termed *centralization*, are not felt in Spain, an evil that exists in France, and which most Frenchmen would wish to see abolished.

The kingdom of Navarre is separated from France by the Pyrenees; it is bounded on the east by Arragon, on the south by Old Castille, and on the west by the Vascongades. The country is mountainous, but intersected with rich and fruitful vallies, and crossed in different directions with excellent roads, an advantage which few Spanish provinces possess. The climate, although cold and variable, is by no means unwholesome; the inhabitants are laborious and poor. That petty kingdom, of which an ancestor of Henry the Fourth had been deprived by pope Julius the Second, was united to the crown of Arragon and Castille in the year 1518. The traveller who enters the country from France, observes, as soon as he has crossed the Pyrenees, the small plain of Roncevallos; and in the convent of the same town are still seen several relics, that may remind him of the brave Roland and archbishop Turpin. | Kingdom of Navarre.

Pampeluna (Pamplona) rises on Mount St. Christopher, at no great distance from the last place, above the banks of the Arga. It has been affirmed that the town was built by Pompey, who gave it the name of *Pompeiopolis;* at all events, it is the capital of the province, and the seat of a diocess. The walls, bastions, and ancient castle are imposing, but the interior of the town is by no means cheerful; the streets are straight, spacious, and deserted, the houses are lofty, and built of stone; the trade of the inhabitants consists chiefly in coarse cloths, and different sorts of earthen ware. Tudela, a handsome episcopal town, possessing cloth manufactories, soap and porcelain works, and carrying on a considerable trade in cattle, stands at the confluence of the Queila and the Ebro. | Pampeluna.

The Vascongades,[m] or the three provinces that derive their name from the ancient Basque population, form a triangle, of which the northern side is watered by the Gulph of Gascony, and the two others bounded by Navarre and Old Castille. Distinguished by that great activity and love of independence common to the people in other mountainous countries, these industrious Basques have found in an unfruitful soil, the palladium of their freedom. Although subject to the Spanish domination in virtue of ancient treaties, the kings of Spain may rather be considered their protectors than their sovereigns. The three provinces have a separate government and general assemblies, in which their mutual interests are not only discussed, but the orders of the king examined, for they cannot be executed without that formality. They tax themselves to defray the expenses of the local administration; the contributions which they pay to the crown are considered gifts that are rarely sought, and never granted unless they be very moderate. | Vascongades.

The Bidassoa separates France from the province of Guipuscoa. Fontarrabia, or Fuenterrabia, according to its Latin | Province of Guipuscoa.

Those of *Caceres* and *Badajos* in Estremadura.

Those of *Madrid, Guadalaxara, Cuenca* and *Toledo* in New Castille.

Cuidad-Real in La Mancha.

Those of *Alicante, San Felipe, Valencia,* and *Castellon de la Plana* in the kingdom of Valencia.

Huelva, Seville, Cadiz, Jaen, Cordova, Grenada, Malaga, and *Almeria* in Andalusia.

Murcia and *Chincilla* in the kingdom of Murcia.

Palma in the Baleares.

These divisions were abolished when the king obtained despotic power.

[m] M. William de Humboldt has proved in his learned researches, that the Basque bears more characters of a primitive language than any other known tongue in Europe. The name of the people who speak it, appears to be derived from the Basque word *Vaso,* which signifies a mountain. If the same word be used adjectively, the termination co must be added, thus the people have been denominated *Vasoco,* and by contraction *Vasco* or *mountainous.* The Romans called the Basques Vascones, and their country Vasconia, of which the etymology is still preserved in the Spanish word *Vascongades.*

name, *Fons rapidus*, is a strong place on the mouth of the little river which discharges itself into the bay of Biscay. Tolosa, or the ancient *Iturissa*, is a small but pleasant town on the banks of the Orio. Saint Sebastian is the capital of the province; situated on a peninsula watered by the bay, with a small harbour at the mouth of the Urumea, the town itself cannot be considered very large, but the inhabitants are industrious; they carry on a trade in cloth, leather, arms, and iron. A bay apparently closed on all sides by mountains, runs into the land between Fontarrabia and Saint Sebastian; it forms the harbour of Los Passages, perhaps the finest and safest in Europe. The town is built on a piece of ground between the mountains and the bay. Bergara possesses a patriotic school, in which the physical sciences are taught, and where the young nobles of the country are educated at the expense of the state. All the coasts are peopled by fishermen or mariners, and the rural districts by laborious and peaceful husbandmen.

Saint Sebastian.

Province of Biscay.

No country can be more agreeable than the hills in Biscay, none more fruitful than the cultivated vallies. Bilboa or the capital has long been the mart of all the wool that Spain exports, and of all the merchandise sent from different countries into the northern provinces of the kingdom. Crowds frequent the harbour; many ships repair to it, although the town may be about two leagues from the sea; it rises above the right bank of the Ausa, a small river sufficiently deep to receive large merchant vessels; the same river abounds in *angulas*, a very delicate fish, highly valued in Spain.

Province of Alava. Vittoria.

The road that leads from Biscay into the province of Alava passes along the great ravine and mountain of Salivas. Beyond the burgh of the same name, the heights become gradually lower until they terminate in the fruitful plain of Vittoria, in which many hamlets and villages vary the romantic scenery. *Vittoria*, the capital, or according to its Latin name, *Victoria*, serves still to mark the place where the Cantabri were defeated in the reign of Augustus. It was rebuilt by Sancho the Great, who gained under its walls a decisive victory over the Saracens. The old town consists of irregular and clumsy houses, but the new has been built with much elegance; it contains a spacious square, at present set apart for bull fights. Several festivals are held in Vittoria; some in honour of the young, others of married persons; these ceremonies tend to preserve the purity of the people.

Principality of the Asturias.

The principality of the Asturias is bounded on the north by the ocean, on the east by Biscay, on the south by the ridge of the Asturian Pyrenees, and on the west by Gallicia. Many small and sinuous vallies intersect it; they are watered by torrents and rivers well supplied with fish. The people in the province boast that they have never mixed with foreigners; they are brave, patient, and laborious.

Oviedo.

Oviedo, or the capital, the ancient *Ovetum*, may be situated about the middle of the province, on a hill that rises above an undulating plain between the Nora and the Nalon. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice, and the finest in the town, was built in the eleventh century; some ancient relics have been deposited in it, and the people hold them in great veneration. Cangas de Onis, a small town on the banks of the Cella, stands at a short distance from the abbey of Our Lady of Cavadonga, which, it is said, occupies the site where Pelagius first planted the standard of independence. The same distinguished person resided long at Gijon, a well built town at the base of a mountain that terminates in cape Penas; its port was formerly much frequented. Aviles rises on the other side of the cape; it carries on a trade in coal, copper, and hardware, manufactured in the neighbourhood.

Gallicia.

The kingdom of Gallicia, contiguous to the Asturias and to Leon, is bounded on the north and the west by the ocean,

and on the south by Portugal. The large vallies in the province are formed by different high chains connected with the Pyrenean range. Some important towns, and more than forty harbours, are situated in Gallicia. Santiago, or San Iago de Compostella, although it may not perhaps be the ancient *Galloecia*, is considered the capital of the kingdom. The streets are crooked and ill paved; the principal ornament of the town, the large Gothic cathedral, was built more than a thousand years ago. It is a double edifice, the lower forms a subterranean church, consecrated to *St. Iago Minore*, or St. James the younger; in the upper one, the pious Catholics adore the body of St. James the elder, which was discovered at the time the workmen were building the cathedral. The riches of the same church, or the treasures supplied by credulous piety, have been greatly exaggerated, probably because they were never generally known until an equal division was made between the chapter and Marshal Ney, in 1809; the sum allotted to him for the pay of his troops amounted to a hundred thousand crowns.[n] The gold statue of St. James turned out to be only gilt, and his diamond eyes, it was discovered, were imitation diamonds. The magnificence of the church consists principally in the extravagance of the sculpture, and in the beauty of the painted windows.

The trade in images, chaplets, and other objects of superstition, is not without importance at Santiago; but the real industry of the place is centred in the cloth and silk manufactories. Orensé, situated in a fine country near the extremity of the province, and watered by the Mino, was formerly more flourishing; a fine bridge of ten arches, so lofty that a ship of war with all its masts may sail under them, has been built over the river; one edifice too, the Gothic cathedral, may be remarked for the elegance and regularity of its proportions. Many still resort to the three warm springs, on account of which the town was called *Aquæ Caldæ* by the ancients. Lugo, founded by the Romans seventy-six years before the vulgar era, was named *Lucus Augusti*, in honour of Augustus. The Tamboga waters the town; the thermal springs and a sacred wood induced the Romans to build it on its present site, where several ruins not uninteresting to antiquaries, are still to be seen within the walls and in the neighbourhood. The townhouse and its majestic front were built by the ancients. The circular walls that encompass Lugo, might contain ten times the number of inhabitants; they are nearly a league in circumference. Mondonedo, situated on the Sierra d'Infestia, of which the declivities descend to the ocean, was the ancient *Bretonia;* it was long well known for its cattle-fairs, but at present they are not much frequented.

Ports in Gallicia.

The principal ports in Gallicia may now be mentioned. Ferol, the chief town in one of the three maritime departments in Spain, possesses a naval academy and school; the spacious harbour forms a bay, on which formidable batteries have been erected to guard the narrow entrance. The inhabitants are industrious and consequently wealthy. Betanzos, or the ancient *Brigantiun*, situated at some distance to the south of Ferol, unites a trade in light wines with the commerce of its port. *Corogne*, or Corunna, the *Caronium* of the Gallœci, at the extremity of a small peninsula about five leagues from Betanzos, has been divided into two towns; the one or the old is surrounded with fortifications, the other or the Pescadaria, as it has been called from its fish market, is only fortified on the side of the land. The bay of Corunna may be about a league in breadth; the harbour, perhaps the most frequented of any in Gallicia, is large and commodious; it forms a crescent which the fort St. Anthony serves to defend. The town is enriched by its commerce, by sardel fisheries, cloth, and hosiery; lastly by cigar manufactories, in which more than five hundred women are employed. It is

[n] Bory de St. Vincent, Guide du Voyageur en Espagne.

not improbable that the word Corunna has been derived from *Columna;* such at least was the name that the ancients gave a tower that was used as a pharos, in height and appearance not unlike a column. The same tower still remains; according to tradition, it was built and consecrated to Hercules by the Phenicians; at a later period repaired by the Romans, who dedicated it to Mars. A Latin inscription serves to confirm the tradition, but a learned Spaniard considers it the work of Trajan.°

Province of Leon. The kingdom of Leon, an important Spanish province, still retains its ancient title; contiguous to Portugal and Gallicia on the west, it is bounded by Estremadura on the south, by Old Castille on the east, and by the mountains which separate it from the Asturias on the north. The Duero crosses it from east to west.

Town of Leon. The province derives its name from the town of Leon, the capital, founded by the emperor Galba, on the place where a Roman legion (*legio septima gemina*) was stationed. The cathedral church, the principal ornament of the place, was commenced about the end of the twelfth century, and completed in the fourteenth; remarkable for its elegance and lightness, it has been considered the finest in Spain. The streets are crooked, and for the most part very dirty; they are chiefly composed of Gothic and irregular houses; the market place, however, may be considered an exception; it forms a perfect square, and strangers admire it for the regularity of the buildings. The antiquary may still discover inscriptions, and other Roman monuments in Astorga, the ancient *Asturica Augusta;* the thick walls of the town, flanked with turrets and bastions, were repaired and extended by the French. Ponferrada is supposed to have been *Pons Ferratus*, a Roman town; it possessed an ancient castle now in ruins, which belonged to the Templars. It stands at the confluence of the Sil and the Boeza, in the middle of a large and fruitful valley enclosed by steep heights. Zamora was destroyed by the Moors in the eleventh century, and rebuilt by Ferdinand the Second and Alphonso the Eighth. It rises on the right bank of the Duero; the bridge across the river may be said to be the greatest ornament to the town; the military school has not wholly lost its ancient reputation. The pleasant city of Toro, although very insignificant in point of size, contains not less than eighteen parishes and an infirmary. The cortes met within its walls in the year 1505, and to that assembly the Spaniards were indebted for the wise and equitable laws that are still called the laws of Toro. Tordesillas, the ancient *Turris Syllæ*, is still commanded by the old castle, where the mother of Charles the Fifth died in the year 1555; but long before that period, she was afflicted with the loss of reason. Carrion de los Condes is celebrated in the Spanish chronicles for the exploits of the Cid, and also for a memorable victory over the Moors. An annual tribute of a hundred virgins, which the Moorish princes exacted from the Spaniards, was abolished after the battle, and a festival still held in the town, serves to commemorate the event. The town contains eight parishes; it must be a place of considerable industry, for there are not fewer than six linen manufactories, eight leather works, five oil, and as many flour mills. Palencia may be considered an agreeable town, although the houses are of Gothic architecture. In one large and well built square, two of the sides are adorned with piazzas, and the cathedral erected by King Sancho in the vicinity, is not inferior in size to any in Spain. Valladolid possesses a university, and an academy of painting; the royal castle was the birthplace of Philip the Second and several kings; the cathedral and fifteen parish churches are richly endowed, many broad and straight streets are adorned with porticos supported on granite pillars; they terminate in a spacious square; but with all these advantages, it has the appearance of

° Don Jose Cornide, the academician. See his Dissertation on that Monument.

a deserted town. The population was formerly equal to a hundred thousand persons, it does not amount at present to twenty-five thousand. The inquisition was long held within the walls of Valladolid, and the proceedings were marked with the cruelty and ferocity, which distinguish it from every other tribunal. The same town stands on the site of the ancient *Pintia*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, at the confluence of the Esqueva and the Pisuerga. The trade of Valladolid is not great, it consists in ribands, porcelain, perfumery, and liqueurs. Salamanca, formerly *Salmantica*, celebrated for a university founded in the year 1239, possesses also twenty-five churches, a cathedral, a fine monument of the sixteenth century, and many edifices of every period and every style, on account of which it has been styled the Rome of Spain. The principal court, as the inhabitants call it, forms a regular square; it is encompassed with a portico consisting of ninety arcades; the houses are overtopped with stone balustrades. The one half of the bridge across the Tormes was built by the Romans, the other in the time of Philip the Fourth. Ciudad Rodrigo, an important fortress in the twelfth century, was more than once besieged in the last war. It appears from inscriptions and different remains of antiquity, that it was the *Lancia Transcudana* of the Romans, so called from its position on the right bank of the Agueda, or according to its ancient name, the *Cuda*.

Old Castille.

Old Castille has been divided into five provinces; it is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Gascony, on the west by the Asturias and the kingdom of Leon, on the south by New Castille, on the east by Arragon, and on the north-east by Navarre and the Vascongades. The Duero waters the country, and flows in the direction from east to west. Castille, it has been affirmed, was so called from the great number of castles, (*castillos*,) formerly its means of defence against the Moors, and the residences of petty princes that ambition armed against each other.

Santander.

Santander, supposed to be the *Menosca* of the *Varduli*, is the largest town in the north of Old Castille; many vessels frequent the harbour, and it carries on a considerable trade in wine.

Burgos.

Burgos, the *Bravum* of Ptolemy, and an ancient capital, abounds with convents and churches. The cathedral, a highly finished Gothic edifice, remarkable for its elegance and the numerous small spires that rise above each other on every side, the remains of the house inhabited by the Cid, the arch of Fernandez Gonzale, the episcopal palace, and St. Mary's arch, which might be more correctly denominated the triumphal gate that leads to the Rio Arlanzon, are the principal ornaments or curiosities in Burgos. Beyond the walls are the tomb of the Cid, and the ruins of the palace formerly belonging to King Alphonso the Wise, a legislator, an astronomer, and the author of the *Alphonsine Tables*.

Soria.

Soria, a small town watered by the Duero, stands on the site of the ancient Numantia; it possesses a considerable trade in wool.

Segovia.

Segovia requires a more minute description; it is the ancient Segovia, a Celtiberian city embellished by Trajan; its name has not been changed. It stands on a hill of which the Eresma waters the base. The Arabic gate and the Alcazar, an old castle flanked with turrets, and built on a precipitous rock, may still give the stranger some notion of the flourishing state of Segovia under the Moorish domination. But these sink into insignificance when compared or rather contrasted with the work of Trajan, the aqueduct with a double range of arcades, by which water has been conveyed into the town for seventeen hundred years. It consists of a hundred and nine arches; the largest may be nearly ninety feet in height from the ground to the conduit, and the length of the space which they cover, exceeds two thousand five hundred and thirty

feet. If Trajan raised a structure so costly, solid, and gigantic, it may be readily admitted that Segovia, in ancient times, was a much more important place than it is at present. Other works of past days still serve to recall the ancient splendour of the town; but sumptuous temples have given way to time, or the more destructive efforts of ignorance and barbarism. The cathedral is the finest modern edifice in the city; it was built in the sixteenth century, and its demi-gothic style announces the period of the regeneration of art. The styles of different periods are united in the Alcazar, and the interior is not the least curious part of the building. The principal stair-case is constructed in the best taste, most of the apartments are adorned with carved work and gilt wood; in the largest hall are contained a collection of wooden statues representing the kings of Oviedo, Leon, and Castille, from Fabela the First, who reigned in the eighth century to the time of queen Joan, surnamed the Foolish, the mother of Charles the Fifth. The Cid and his famous horse Babicio are also represented; one may see too the real or supposed saddle of the same courser, which contributed more than once to the victories of its master. The pupils in the royal school of artillery, founded by Charles the Third, now meet in this ancient edifice. Segovia was formerly well known for its cloth; it possesses still a great many looms, four fullers' mills, and three large washing places for wool.

St. Ildefonse.

St. Ildefonse lies at two leagues from Segovia. Once a manor belonging to a society of monks, it was purchased by Philip the Fifth, who built a palace on the grounds, to which the king and his successors repaired in summer. The houses near it form a small town of four thousand inhabitants. The palace is of simple architecture, and within it are contained the best paintings which Christina of Sweden collected at Rome. It may be said of the gardens, as it has been said of others at Versailles, that art has conquered nature; the water which descends from the neighbouring heights has been diverted at a great expense; a thousand channels supply lakes, cascades, fountains, and spouts, that rise above the trees, and surpass every thing of the kind in Europe; in short, Philip the Fifth imitating the prodigality of his ancestor, expended four million five hundred thousand piastres on his country seat, an enormous sum, by which the treasury was almost exhausted.

Avila.

Avila is the most southern province in Old Castille; the chief town, or Avila, derives its name from an Arabic word. It has a fine cathedral and college, but on the whole it may be considered a dismal and gloomy city, encompassed with thick walls. It was the native town of St. Theresa and Gilles Gonzalez Davila.

Kingdom of Arragon, chief town.

The ancient kingdom of Arragon forms a single province, bounded on the north by France, on the east by Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia, and on the south by Old Castille. Tarazona, supposed to be the ancient *Augustobriga*, stands below the Sierra de Moncayo; it is divided into the high and low town. It may be doubted if the convent belonging to the Fathers of Mercy is entitled to the encomiums that have been lavished on its architecture; the faithful repair to it that they may adore the bodies of St. Boniface and St. Eusebius. Borja, a small place at no great distance from Tarazona, carries on a trade in flint, which abounds in the neighbourhood. Calatayud was built on the ruins of *Bilbilis*, on the banks of the Xalon, the birth-place of the poet Martial. Doroca appears to be the ancient *Agiria*, a city of the Celtiberi; the vast cavern in the vicinity, dug under the chain of Moncayo, receives the torrents that descend in rainy seasons, and thus secures the town against inundation. Albaracin, of which the name is evidently Arabic, is watered by the Guadalaviar; it rises in a fruitful and romantic valley, enclosed by the mountains of Idubeda and the Sierra d'Albaracin. Teruel, near the confluence of the Guadalaviar and the Rio Alambra, an ancient

town without any remarkable buildings, has been distinguished by the industry of its inhabitants. Alcaniz was built by the Moors; its name signifies a *treasury* in the Arabic language; it is commanded by an old fortress near the Guadaloupe, and adorned with a very fine square, that leads to the principal church. Barbastro, an old town encompassed with walls, stands on the banks of the Vero, a small river which divides it into two parts, that communicate with each other by a stone bridge. The Madragora flows near the little town of Benavarre; the same stream issues with a loud noise at irregular intervals from the depths of the earth, and rushing suddenly into the neighbouring vallies, destroys the harvest and the labours of the husbandman. Iaca, a strong hold at the base of the Pyrenees, is not more than six leagues from the frontiers of France; it lies in a beautiful valley, that communicates with several others of a smaller size. Sos is only remarkable for an old castle in which Ferdinand the Catholic was born. Huesca, or the ancient Osca, which was raised to the rank of a metropolitan town in the sixth century, is pleasantly situated in the midst of a plain, that extends on the north to the Sierra Guara. The streets are well built; the longest, or the Coso, consists of uniform houses and different public buildings, such as the cathedral, the consistorial chamber, the university founded in the year 1354, the palace of Count Huaza, and the convents of St. Francis and St. Domingo.

Saragossa, or the ancient *Salduba*, was erected into a military colony by Augustus, under the name of *Cæsar Augusta*. The Spaniards call it Zaragoza: situated almost in the centre of Arragon, near the junction of the Ebro with the Huerva, it is the capital of the province, and likely to be for ever memorable in the annals of Spain from the resistance it made against the French troops, who took it by assault, and when masters of the walls, were obliged to besiege the houses. The bridge of Saragossa consists of seven arches, one of which is 180 feet wide. The *Holy street* is not only longer, but broader than any other in the town. The church of Our Lady is superior in architectural beauty to the cathedral, and also more celebrated on account of its miracles; but the adjoining country has a monotonous appearance in spite of the most varied culture. An edifice in the neighbourhood, the convent of the hieronomites, erected in the middle ages, exhibits a fine mixture of the Moorish and Italian styles. | Saragossa.

Catalonia, contiguous to France, Arragon, and the kingdom of Murcia, is bathed on the east by the Mediterranean. A mountainous country and a great extent of coast appear to have had some influence on the character of the inhabitants; in other words, to have rendered them more industrious, more attached to their native land, and consequently more watchful of its independence. The people of Marca Hispanica, as the province was then called, shook off the Moorish yoke in the tenth century. *Gotholaunia*, from which the word Catalonia has been derived, was at the same time substituted for its ancient name. The counts of Catalonia, originally vassals of France, first made themselves independent, and the people excited by their warlike spirit, carried their arms or their commerce into most countries then known. Lastly, the house of Catalonia having become powerful from alliances, was able to unite on a single head all the crowns of Spain. The activity which distinguishes the Catalonian, his patience of labour, his pride, that makes him submit to many privations rather than become a servant, or engage in servile employments in his native country, his language, a Provençal dialect, unintelligible to other Spaniards, render Catalonia different in many respects from every other province in the kingdom. Agriculture has made greater progress; trees are not prohibited, as in some other provinces; the woods and groves near the towns heighten the effect of the | Catalonia.

scenery, and afford a grateful shade against the heat of the sun, an advantage of which Arragon has been deprived.

Junquera. | Junquera, at the base of the Pyrenees, the most eastern burgh towards the extremity of these mountains, was called *Juncaria* by the Romans, from the great number of rushes (*stipa tenuissima*) that grow in the neighbourhood. The industry of the inhabitants is mostly confined to their cork manufactories, from which they derive a considerable profit. Figueras, supposed to possess the strongest citadel in Europe, is regularly built, and situated in a fruitful country at the base of the hills which separate the course of the Muga from the Marol. Two roads meet in Figueras, the one leads to Roses, a strong place on the coast, with a large but not very safe anchorage, the other to Gerone, which the poet Prudentius, a writer of the fourth century, calls the small and wealthy town of *Gerunda*. Little of its wealth now remains; it stands at the foot of a hill; it is commanded by the small fort of Montjoui; all the other fortifications were destroyed by the French in 1808. The only remarkable monuments are the Arabic baths within the convent of the Capuchins, and the cathedral, of which the front cannot be too much commended. There are soap works, and one or two cotton manufactories in the town.

Urgel. | Urgel, or as it is called in Spain, *Seo de Urgel*, an episcopal city, well known during the last Spanish revolution as the place where the apostolic junta assembled, rises in a valley on the Pyrenees, on the banks of the Segra. Balaguer and its strong castle are situated below it on the same river; it is the ancient town of Bergusia, to which place, according to Livy, the Romans sent ambassadors two centuries before the vulgar era, to persuade the inhabitants to break off their alliance with the Carthagenians. The Segra also waters Lerida, or as Lucan calls it, "*Ilerda* on the peaceful streams of the *Sicoris*." Livy calls it by the ancient Greek name of *Athanagia*, which signifies immortal. Lerida rises on the declivity of a hill; it is surrounded by a very fruitful country; the banks of the river are shaded by poplars and other trees. The town still possesses some remains of ancient splendour; among others, the gate of *Los Botes*, a Roman building. Cervera, although the largest of the four towns of the same name, is a small place, surrounded with walls, and defended by an ancient castle. The university may be considered the finest edifice; it was founded in the year 1717. Igualada on the banks of the Reo-Noya, is well built; the inhabitants are frugal and industrious.

Mount Serrat. | Mount Serrat rises at the distance of five leagues from the last place; its numerous peaks tower into the air, and from their appearance its name has been derived, which signifies the *serrated mountain*. The caverns in its schistous and calcareous mass are remarkable for the yellow alabaster deposited within them in the form of stalactites. The mountain may be about eight leagues in circumference, and its summit is almost always concealed by clouds. Fourteen hermitages are situated between the base and the top; the magnificent convent of the Benedictines may be about half way from the summit. It was there that Ignatius Loyala, anticipating the great events to which he believed himself called, consecrated his sword to the virgin. The Cardenet, which throws itself into the Llobregat, flows at no great distance from Mount Serrat; a canal serves as a communication between the two rivers, and runs through the town of Manresa, the inhabitants of which carry on a trade in silk and gunpowder. A very magnificent church may be seen on the left bank of the Cardenet; it was built by the Jesuits above a grotto, to which the founder of their order retired and composed his Spiritual Exercises.

Cardona. | The small town of *Cardona*, at some leagues to the north of Manresa, was the ancient *Udura*, at present only remarkable for the rock-salt mines in the vicinity; but it is difficult to conceive a more

splendid spectacle than these large quarries, exhibiting saline deposits nearly four hundred feet in height, and which when illumed with the sun's rays, display the brilliant colours of the rainbow. The strata of rock salt are in some places as transparent as crystal; in others they are blue, or bright red, or mixed with gray argil. The variety of vivid colours, the abrupt sides, the prominences and summits in this imposing mass, the only one of the kind in Europe, render it not unlike a mountain of precious stones, surpassing in magnificence whatever has been imagined by the natives of the east concerning the abodes of fays and genii. The geological situation of these salt mines was long unknown to naturalists; but it has now been ascertained that the vast prominence which they form, or a space nearly twelve thousand feet in length, and four thousand in breadth, contains deposits of gypsum and argil arranged in vertical strata, and separating in some places the layers of salt. These substances, together with sandstone, are found in the quartz and calcareous rocks of the surrounding mountain, which belongs to the intermediate formation.[p]

Solsona.

A road from Cardona passes between frightful precipices, and through a thick wood, at the end of which may be seen the romantic town of Solsona, the *Setelsis* of Ptolemy. It rises near the extremity of a mountainous group, on the banks of the Rio Negro. The neighbouring districts are well cultivated, and the inhabitants of the town manufacture cutlery and hardware. A chain of mountains connected with the Pyrenean range, and separating the river Llobregat from the sea, extends between Solsona and Vich, an ancient town, built on the ruins of *Ausa*, where the inhabitants resisted the Romans a hundred and eighty-five years before the vulgar era. The streets are broad, some, however, are not paved, and most of them are very steep. The principal square is surrounded with arcades, and the shops, coffee-houses, and other places of amusement, render it a place of resort for the town's people. The copper and coal mines in the neighbouring mountains, the linen and cotton manufactures within the walls, maintain the commerce of the inhabitants.

Mataro.

As to the towns on the coast of Catalonia, Mataro, or as Pliny calls it, *Illuro*, is the capital of a maritime district. It carries on a considerable coasting trade; many vessels repair to the harbour; the inhabitants manufacture a great quantity of lace; and the products of the distilleries are held in some repute. The old town stands on an eminence; ancient walls, gates, and other remains of antiquity still remain: the streets are narrow, but not so crooked as many in other Spanish cities. The new town, formerly a suburb, is now much larger than the old; it is better planned and better built, the houses are not inelegant, and many of them are adorned with fresco paintings.

Barcelona.

Whether the stranger travels along the road that leads from Mataro to Barcelona, or proceeds to the same capital by sea, he is struck with the beauty of its position, the regularity of the buildings, and the impulse given to commerce by the activity of the population. There are not fewer than seven hospitals, four public libraries, eight public schools, an institution for the deaf and dumb, an academy of painting, schools of pharmacy, surgery, and medicine, and lastly, a society for the encouragement of arts and sciences. The buildings set apart for these schools, academies, and societies, are not unworthy the large city of Barcelona; but the finest edifices are those reserved for public or religious institutions; among the former are the palace of audience, in which the celebrated archives of Arragon, and other documents connected with that kingdom, as old as the eighth century, are deposited, the town-house, an

[p] See the memoir on the rock salt of Cardona, by M. Cordier, Journal de Physique, tome 82.

elegant building, the palace of the captain-general of the customs, the front of which has been adorned with two rows of columns, the lonja, or treasury, admirable for the simplicity of its architecture, and lastly, the theatre, perhaps the finest of the kind in Spain. The convent of Santa Claira is all that remains of the ancient palace that belonged to the counts of Barcelona, and the kings of Arragon. The cloister in the convent of Mercy is very large, and of finished workmanship. The church of St. Michael, once the temple of Neptune, is still adorned with an ancient Mosaic pavement. The cathedral is a Gothic building, but bold, simple, and majestic; an alabaster mausoleum may be seen in a chapel under the church; it contains the remains of St. Eulalia, the tutelar saint of the town. The church of St. Mary is after the cathedral, the finest in Barcelona. It is not difficult to trace the successive additions made to the town; the old streets are narrow and crooked, but the new are straight; the modern houses consist of four, or at most five stories; they are adorned with balconies, and are mostly laid out with considerable taste. Many Roman monuments are still to be found in the modern Barcelona, or ancient Barcino, which, it has been supposed, was founded by Hamilcar, the ancestor of Annibal. The fort Monjuich, or Montjoui, which guards the town on the south, while the citadel defends it on the north, stands on the site of a temple dedicated to Jupiter. Barcelonetta has been built near the mole that extends into the sea; it forms merely a suburbs of Barcelona. The port, although regularly cleaned, is much encumbered with ooze and pebbles; it has been for a long time inaccessible to large ships, an inconvenience which has hitherto had little effect on the commerce of the place; the products of industry consist in cloths, silk lace, and excellent armour. The consequences of the epidemical disease by which the population was more than decimated in 1821, are now almost forgotten.

Falls of St. Michael.

It would be an omission to say nothing of the situation of Barcelona, or the varied scenery in the neighbourhood, forming a landscape of lofty hills, thick woods, precipices, torrents, and foaming cataracts, likely to be appreciated by those who can find subjects of study in the beauties of nature.

Road to Tarragona.

Many monuments of Roman power are seen in the country between the capital of Catalonia and Tarragona; the remains of an aqueduct near Villafranca form a line between two steep mountains; the ruins of an ancient fortress are situated near the Villa-nova; and numerous sepulchres dug in rocks, exhibiting, if it may be so said, the impressions of unnumbered human bodies, indicate the site of *Carthago Vetus*, a town mentioned by Ptolemy; a triumphal arch rises beyond the burgh of Vendrell, and near Torre-dam-Barra, a majestic tomb, which, according to popular tradition, contains the ashes of the Scipios. From the last place may be seen Tarragona, apparently extending into the sea, and which different antiquarians consider *Tarraco*, a place that in the time of the Romans, gave its name to the largest province in ancient Hispania. The town stands on an eminence six hundred feet above the level of the sea; it is defended by walls flanked with bastions, and within their enclosure are many ancient monuments, together with some fine modern buildings. The Roman aqueduct is still kept in good repair, uniting utility with its historical recollections; it furnishes wholesome and limpid water to the whole population. The cathedral, of which the architecture appears to have been borrowed from the Moors, is certainly the largest building in the town. Tarragona was exposed to many disasters in consequence of its resistance to the French armies, but it has now become more industrious and more flourishing than formerly. The harbour begun in 1800, affords at present an easy entrance to ships, and a safe retreat against every storm. The wool, the fisheries, the coasting trade of Tarragona, and the commercial relations between the same place and distant

countries, are the guarantees of its prosperity. The town was the birthplace of Paul Orosa, a disciple of St. Augustine.

Reuss, a place founded by the clergy of Tarragona, was only a burgh at the end of the last century, but its commerce and industry now place it among the number of important towns. It carries on a trade in glass, it possesses a hundred and fifty tan-pits, a hundred and twenty machines for carding cotton, eighty-four for spinning silk, six bleach-fields, as many hat manufactories, fifteen different soap works, and twenty for different sorts of dying. Reuss.

Tortosa, or the ancient *Dertosa*, formerly one of the largest cities in the Tarraconensis, stands near the southern extremity of the province, between two mountainous chains on the banks of the Ebro. The Spaniards having taken it from the Moors in the year 1149, the latter collected a great force, and laid siege to the town; the besieged exhausted by a long resistance, were about to give up the place for want of hands to defend it, when the women assumed a warlike dress, were provided with arms, and drove away the Mussulmans. A military ceremony in which the women took precedence of the men, served until lately to perpetuate the memory of the event. Tortosa is at present reckoned one of the strong places in Spain, it is also the capital of a maritime district. The finest edifices in the town are the cathedral and the episcopal palace. Tortosa.

The kingdom of Valencia forms a province bounded by Catalonia, Arragon, New Castille, and Murcia. The coasts are more extensive than those in Catalonia, the land yields rich harvests, and abounds in mines and different sorts of marble. Kingdom of Valencia.

The Valencian is not only laborious and industrious, he possesses a lively imagination, and his uniform gayety or cheerfulness cannot be wholly subdued by misfortunes. They unite, says Fischer,[q] the opposite qualities that are remarked in the inhabitants of the north and in the inhabitants of the south, the bodily strength of the Norwegian with the impetuosity of the Provençal. They are fond of religious ceremonies, festivals, amusements, and every sort of bodily exercise. It is inspiring to see the ardour with which they dance to the accompaniment of the tambourine and the *dulzayna*, an Arabic instrument, not unlike the clarionet, used at present in no other Spanish province. Their dialect, derived from the Provençal, although soft and agreeable, particularly in the mouths of the women, is not destitute of energy. The *Fiera*, a very ancient ballad, which the peasant sings to the sound of his guitar, expresses the woes of love in harmonious modulations and in the continued concord of the accompaniment. A fondness for finery, or display in dress, is common to every class of people in Valencia. The bonnets of the peasantry are like those still used by the Phrygians; their shirts are bound by a girdle, and descend in the form of a tunic; sandals attached with cords, are worn instead of shoes; lastly, a large piece of cloth falls over the shoulders, and completes the costume. In festivals and gala days they appear in velvet, a broad hat encircled with ribands protects them from the sun, while their mantles and buskins are adorned with strings of gold or silk. The country women are distinguished by their grace and gayety from the inhabitants of the other provinces; they never appear without their veils, and wear even in festivals the same sort of bodice that was worn by their ancestors. Character of the Valencians.

The road from Tortosa leads to Peniscola, a frontier town in Valencia; it stands on a rock that rises from the sea to the height of two hundred and forty feet, and a belt of sand, at least thirty feet wide in its narrowest part, unites it with the continent; but the same belt was sometimes covered

[q] Gemœlde von Velencia, herausgegeben von Ch. Aug. Tescher.

with water in tempestuous weather, before a dike was raised by the inhabitants. The town thus fortified by its position, was considered impregnable until marshal Soult took possession of it in November, 1811. The ruins of a church belonging to the templars, may still be seen; it was to it that the antipope Peter Luna, who had taken the title of Benedict the Thirteenth, fled for safety; he died in the same place in the year 1423. A natural grotto into which the waves are precipitated with a loud noise, has been called the *Bufador of pope Luna* in honour of the same celebrated person. Castellon, surnamed La Planta, to distinguish it from two cities of the same name, the one in Valencia, the other in Catalonia, is a well built town about a league from the sea, and at a short distance from the Rio Mijares, over which a bridge of thirteen arches has been lately erected. Francisco Ribalta, the celebrated painter, was a native of the town. Segorba has been considered the *Segobriga* mentioned by Pliny; but the dolphins represented in the medals of the same place, seem to indicate that the ancient town of the Suessetani was not far from the sea.[r]

Towns.

Valencia, which gives its name to the province, is one of the finest and largest cities in Spain. The Spaniards still call it by the ancient name of *Valentia*, but the antiquities consist merely of imperfect inscriptions and mutilated columns. The Guadalaviar passes through the town; although at no great distance from its embouchure, it is very narrow, because the streams are diverted, and serve to irrigate the fertile districts watered by the river. Bridges lead from the town to the different suburbs. The cathedral, an ancient mosque, may be remarked on account of a silver altar, and the pictures that adorn the chapels. The Arabic baths, although disfigured by modern additions, enable us to judge of the manner in which the Moors laid out these edifices. The custom-house, a fine building, forms nearly a side of the square St. Domingo. The *lonja*, or treasury, a Gothic edifice in the market-place, is crowned by a range of battlements rising above a hall one hundred and twenty feet long, eighty broad, and sixty in height. The elegance of the private houses, at the same time that it announces the wealth, is creditable to the taste of the inhabitants. The same town was the first in Spain, in which *serenas* were established, or companies of police that walked the streets at night, watched over the public safety, and warned the inhabitants in cases of fire. These useful institutions have been adopted in all the large Spanish towns since the last century. Lastly, it was also the first place that participated in the benefits of printing; so early as the year 1474, the inhabitants distinguished themselves in the new art, and even at present it possesses a decided superiority in this respect over all the towns in the kingdom. The same cause may account in some measure for the rank which it holds among the cities that have produced celebrated men in literature and the arts. The institutions connected with education or instruction, are seven seminaries, a university, two public libraries, a botanical garden, a great many elementary schools, a military school for cavalry, a royal academy of liberal arts, and a society of agriculture and rural economy.

Valencia.

Neighbourhood of Valencia.

Whether a stranger leaves Valencia by the gate Serranos, of which the semi-gothic architecture and the two massive octogonal towers accord perfectly with the flanked walls that surround the town, or proceeds by the *Puerta del Real*, the triumphal gate, along the fine walk of the *Alameda*, he is equally struck with the beauty of the country, the richness of the cultivation, and the luxuriance of the vegetation throughout the whole extent that the eye can reach.

Two places may be mentioned between Valencia and Alicante,—Gandia, a small maritime town, situated in the most fruitful and finest part

[r] Compare D'Anville with the work entitled Medellas de Espana by P. Florez.

of the province, and Denia, a port now insignificant, but celebrated in ancient times under the name of Dianium,[a] from a temple consecrated to Diana, of which some remains may be observed. Alicante still retains an Arabic name; it is built near the site of the ancient *Lucentum*, and extends on a fine beach under several hills. A castle commands the nearest of these heights; the rocks which form it, threaten to give way and to destroy the town. The harbour is safe and commodious, and the large and deep bay might serve as an anchoring place for several fleets. Orihuella, near the confines of Murcia, was the ancient *Orcelis*, a town supposed to have been founded by the Carthaginians; it stands on a fruitful plain, watered by the Segura, and at the base of a lofty calcareous hill. Xicona, a place of some trade, may be about twelve leagues to the north-east of Orihuella. Lastly, San Felipe, formerly Xatina, which was destroyed because the inhabitants resisted Philip the Fifth, and afterwards embellished by the same prince, who gave it the name that it now bears, is situated below a mountain, on which may be seen an ancient castle, built first by the Romans, afterwards by the Goths and Moors. San Felipe possesses a considerable trade in cotton and silk manufactures, and according to tradition, it occupies the site of *Sætabis*, famous in ancient times for linen.

Alicante.

New Castile forms a large division of Spain; it is bounded by the kingdom of Valencia, Arragon, Old Castile, Estremadura, Andalusia, and Murcia; it comprehends the provinces of Cuenca, Gaudalaxara, Madrid, Toledo, and La Mancha.

New Castile.

Few towns of any consequence are situated in the province of Cuenca. San Clemente in the south, may be perhaps the largest; it possesses a Latin seminary. Huete, a small and finely situated town in the north, bears the name of the stream that waters it. Cuenca in the centre, or the ancient *Valeria*, near the confluence of the Huecar and the Jucar, rises on a mountain of which the sides form lofty precipices above these rivers. It contains fourteen churches, two hospitals, and three seminaries, but it was formerly more populous than at present. It is the native town of the architect Henera, and the celebrated jesuit, Lewis de Molina, perhaps the most subtile casuist of his fraternity.

Province of Cuenca.

Seguenza in the province of Guadalaxara, contains nothing remarkable except a Gothic cathedral, three hundred and thirteen feet long, a hundred and twelve broad, and as many in height. It was in ancient times the Celtiberian town of *Seguntia*. Guadalaxara, or Guadolajara, although the capital, is an old Moorish town, ill built, and enclosed with walls on the right bank of the Rio Henares. It still possesses some of the cloth manufactories in which its riches formerly consisted; the largest of these manufactories belongs to the king, but their products are not in so great repute as they once were.

Province of Guadalaxara.

The capital of Madrid adds considerably to the importance of the province. The town, it is said, was built near the site of *Mantua*, a city belonging to the Carpetani. While the Goths were masters of the country, it was a mere village under the archbishops of Toledo. It was included in the number of royal towns in the fourteenth century, and obtained the title of capital by a decree of Philip the Second. It is higher than any other metropolis in Europe, being 1800 feet above the level of the sea, a circumstance that partly accounts for the comparative coldness of the temperature. The climate has some resemblance to those in the north; in summer the heat is oppressive, the centigrade thermometer reaches often to forty degrees; in winter the cold is keen and piercing, and the mercury in the same thermometer descends sometimes so low as eight degrees below the freezing point. The houses are ill adapt-

Province of Madrid.

[a] Strabo, Book III. c. 4. § 6.

ed to shelter the inhabitants against the cold or the humidity of the north wind, for they consist mostly of high apartments, in many places not air-tight, and seldom provided with a fire or chimney. The word Madrid is of Arabic origin, and signifies a *well-aired house;* but the variableness of the climate gives rise to phthisis, putrid fevers, and a sort of dangerous colic, which, according to many, can only be successfully treated by the physicians of the country.[1] It contains besides some old houses built of wood, and decorated according to an ancient custom, with paintings representing bull fights and persons in the costume of the sixteenth century; but the modern quarters of the town are provided with brick or stone houses and broad streets, not inferior to any in other European capitals. The Alcala is the largest street in Madrid, and the most remarkable for the number of public buildings; ten carriages may pass abreast in any part of it. Of the forty-two squares, it may be only necessary to mention the square of the Royal Palace, adorned by that large and imposing edifice, the square of the sun, where the five principal streets terminate, and a place of resort both for the idle and the busy; lastly, the great place (Plaza Major) in the centre of the town, formerly frequented on account of the bull fights and the public festivals at which the king assisted from the balcony of the small palace that has been since converted into a hall for the royal academy of history. The Cevada is the place to which the people run with the greatest pleasure, because it is there that criminals are executed; but the most delightful to a real Spaniard, is the one that serves as an arena for bull fights.

Bull fights. Whoever has not been a witness of these spectacles, where the blood of man is mingled with the blood of an infuriated beast, can form but an imperfect idea of them. It is still more difficult to conceive the ardour with which the people, men and women of the highest rank, rush into the enclosure prepared for these dangerous combats. The artisan, insensible to the wants of his family, leaves his work, and carries his furniture or best clothes to a mount of piety, that he may procure a sufficient sum to pay for his place in the *corrida* (circus.) A surgeon and a priest may be seen in attendance near the amphitheatre, apparently very indifferent about the passing scene, until it has been announced to them that the *toreador* is mortally wounded; the one then administers the resources of his art, and the other the consolations of religion. A combat that is exhibited gratuitously to the people, serves as a prelude to the one for which the spectators pay. The first rays of the sun have hardly illumined the horizon, when the people appear in crowds at the entrance of the circus, to see the bull let loose into the arena, where, tormented by a multitude who have passed the night in taverns, in order to get a good place at the combat, it wounds the fool-hardy drunkards that venture to attack it, until the *matador* despatches it, and puts an end to the fight. In the mean time, preparations are made for the principal spectacle: the first places are filled with the ladies and gentlemen of Madrid, and the others with the lower orders, who can afford to pay for their amusement. The box of the king is situated opposite the gate by which the bull is driven into the arena, and another in front of the king's belongs to the municipal authorities. Before the combat commences, an officer bows to the king, or to the place reserved for him, and then receives his instructions from the master of the ceremonies. The latter gives the signal by throwing up a number of keys. The silent crowd expect the long wished moment. The *picadores*, (prickers,) clad in silk jackets, bespangled with gold, and adorned with ribands of every colour, and chamois pantaloons lined with iron from the heel to the haunch, armed with long and light spears, and mounted on horses with fillets bound round

[1] See Fischer, Reise nach Hispanien.

their eyes, march in file to the accompaniment of trumpets before the two principal boxes, and range themselves opposite the gates. The *chulas*, or tormentors, in the costume of Figaro, carrying long scarlet scarfs, pass between the posts of the balustrade, which separates the arena and the spectators. The chulos are replaced by the *matadores*, holding a long sword in one hand, and the muleta in the other, a sort of small banner that they use as a buckler. After having been presented by a municipal officer to the prince and the master of the ceremonies, they retire in the same order that they entered.

A flourish of trumpets precedes the commencement of the combat. The gates open, and the picadores with couched lances prepare for the fight. The animal springs into the enclosure, runs round every part of it, and seeks in vain to escape. The appearance of twelve or fifteen hundred persons, waving their handkerchiefs and their hats, the shouts of joy that accompany its entrance, frighten or enrage it. It strikes the earth with its horns, beats its tail against its sides, and attacks one of the picadores, who receives it with his lance, supporting it with all his strength against the omoplate of the animal; but as the iron point at the end of the lance can only gall the bull, it becomes more furious, and rushes against each of the picadores. If the men are not very dexterous, or if their lances break, they are dismounted, and their gored horses fall dead on the arena. The horsemen themselves, although their limbs are covered with plates of iron, might also be destroyed, if the chulos did not run forward and turn away the animal by waving their silken banners. When a sufficient number of horses have been killed, the picadores retire and leave the place to the chulos, to whom the perilous task is committed of plunging the *banderilla* into the body of the animal, at the junction of the neck and shoulders. The banderilla is a small staff about two feet long, furnished at one extremity with a bent spike, and at the other are attached many squibs and crackers. The light banderilla remains in front of the animal, passes his arm between the horns, and fixes the *banderilla;* but if he miss his mark, he is infallibly wounded or tossed into the air by his furious adversary, while shouts of *viva* are a thousand times repeated by the crowd. Tormented by the iron and the fire, the bull bellows, bounds, turns and fights with desperate fury, when a flourish of trumpets announces its approaching fate. Assisted by four chulos, the matador, holding in one hand a drawn sword, and in the other an unfurled muleta, presents himself with great gravity. The flag which he displays attracts the attention of the animal, the two adversaries look at each other an instant, the one to satisfy its fury, the other to ward off its attacks. The spectators are all attention, the bull springs forward, but only tearing the light silk, passes under the left arm of the matador, who, with his right hand, strikes the sword into its withers, and, separating two vertebræ, despatches his victim at a single blow. The victor is then hailed with the applauses of the whole assembly, and if he has the address not to leave hold of his sword until he presents it to the people, the ladies crown him with flowers, and the gentlemen load him with piastres. But if the animal does not die near the matador, or reaches any other place than that prescribed by the rules of art, hisses and groans are his only reward. If the bull kills one matador, the people continue shouting *bravo*, until it falls by the hand of another. These sanguinary spectacles, not unknown in the most remote antiquity, and common in the days of chivalry, have retained something of the barbarous gallantry of the middle ages; the matador presents, with much grace, to his mistress, or to a noble dame in the assembly, the ribands placed on the back of the animal to indicate the colour of its breed. These representations, however solemnly conducted, impress the stranger with no favourable idea of Spanish civilization; but the people are not satisfied until ten or twelve bulls and about

twenty horses have fallen; indeed, as a writer who resided long in Spain, and was frequently a witness of these spectacles, affirms, the combat can hardly be considered complete unless a matador has lost his life. But these accidents do not happen so often as might be expected, fortunately for those not familiar with such scenes, or not thinking the death of a man a very agreeable spectacle.

King of Spain and the Indies.

Madrid was bombarded in 1808 by Napoleon, who adopted that method of compelling the people to acknowledge the king of Spain and the Indies, a title which he had conferred on his brother. The same brother of the emperor adorned and improved the capital of Spain. It was he who levelled with the ground the old houses in the neighbourhood of the new palace, and rendered the edifice worthy of being ranked among the finest royal residences in Europe. The interior has been decorated with valuable paintings, and the twelve mirrors in the halls are said to be the largest in the continent. The royal arsenal rises near the principal front of the palace, and an elegant arcade extends along the eastern extremity. The armour of queen Isabella is still preserved in the same collection; but M. Reichard mentions among its curiosities the sword of Francis the First, forgetting that it was the only trophy retained by Napoleon, of all the victories which he gained in Spain.[a] The royal library, valuable from its manuscripts, medals, and antiquities, contains 150,000 volumes. The royal museum of natural history, and the royal academy of San Fernando, founded by Philip the Fifth, are situated in the street of Alcala. M. Mariano de Caberizo, a Spanish writer, has added the authority of his name to a popular fiction; he affirms that the French took away whatever was most precious in the museum of natural history, to enrich their own in Paris. The Paris museum need not be augmented with the fabulous spoils which the author enumerates, for if the skeleton of Mastodonte be excepted, it is as much superior to the other in the number and selection of the different articles, and in the order in which they are classed, as the latter is superior to other museums in the French departments. It is unnecessary to mention the places of education at Madrid, not because they are insufficient in point of number, but because the sphere of their utility is very limited. The charitable institutions are more important; they are richly endowed, and the buildings reserved for them are spacious and cleanly kept. In the general hospital, the largest in Madrid, many unfortunate persons receive every sort of assistance, and in cases of disease, the best medical treatment the capital can afford. The churches are less remarkable for their architecture than for the number of their paintings.

Arsenal.

Walks.

Madrid is not more than two leagues and a half in circumference; the public walks are the garden of the *Retiro*, las *Delicias*, and the *Prado*, a very fine plantation, in which the principal avenue is often crowded with equipages, while the others serve as a place of resort for the burgesses. Two monuments, not unworthy of any capital, may be mentioned; these are the triumphal arch of Alcala, and the gate of Toledo; the former, like those of Atocha and Segovia, leads to pleasant walks beyond the walls, and the other to the majestic bridge over the Manzanares. In summer the river may be easily forded, which accounts for the advice of a jester, who counselled the king to sell the bridge, and purchase water with the money: but in winter the abundant rains, and in spring the sudden melting of the snow accumulated on the mountains, add so much to the breadth and impetuosity of its course, that the bridge is neither too long nor too solid.

Bridge on the Manzanares.

Industry.

The Spanish metropolis is a place of trade; the inhabitants manufacture woollen stuffs of every colour, carpets, silk, printed

[a] See the Traveller's Guide through Europe, by Reichard, 1827.

linen, and muslins; government keeps up at a great expense, very extensive porcelain works; lastly, a fair is held in the town, which lasts from the 21st of September to the 4th of October.

Environs of Madrid.

Madrid stands in the midst of a sandy and sterile plain, surrounded with mountains; but in the neighbourhood some places are not destitute of beauty. The Manzanares waters the *Prado*, the much admired palace, where Philip the Fourth found the duchess of Albuquerque, his mistress, in the arms of the duke de Medina de las Tores. Kings, like other men, are liable to such accidents, but Philip bore it not with becoming moderation, and the lovers might have speedily atoned for their crime with their lives, had not the royal rage been restrained by an attendant.

Few other towns of any consequence are situated in the same province: the ancient *Completum* was ruined in the tenth century; Alcala, however, at no great distance from it on the opposite bank of the Henares, is celebrated not only for its university, the next in importance after the one at Salamanca, but also on account of several distinguished townsmen, among whom may be mentioned the historian Antonio Solis, the naturalist La Camara, and the immortal Cervantes. In a different direction, or at eight leagues to the north-west of Madrid, is situated the Escurial de Abayo, an ecclesiastical burgh, of which the lands belonged to the hieronomites, for whom the superstitious Philip the Second built the Escurial, an immense edifice, at once a monastery and a palace. The Spanish word *escurial* signifies an *exhausted mine.* It is not improbable, therefore, that there was formerly some sort of mine in the place, or that the name was applied to indicate the great size of the building; not certainly to designate a quarry, but the enormous quantity of granite used in the construction, forming a mass, which from its extent might be compared with the works of nature.[x] The building forms a rectangle seven hundred and forty feet in length, and five hundred and eighty in breadth; the height from the base to the cornice exceeds sixty feet. The superstitious Philip, terrified after having lost the battle at St. Quentin, and not knowing to which of the saints he should address his vows, swore if on any future day he should retrieve his lost fortunes, to raise the most magnificent convent in the world to the saint whose name then appeared in the calendar. Having gained a victory with the assistance of the English, he hastened to perform his vows: the day on which he was successful, was the anniversary of the saint and martyr Lorenzo; a site for the building was therefore chosen near the village of San Lorenzo. The saint had been burnt to death on a gridiron; that circumstance determined the form of the edifice; gridirons appear in profusion among the architectural ornaments, and the same instruments are sowed or embroidered on the sacerdotal habits. Four towers, each two hundred and sixty feet high, erected at the four angles of the building, represent the feet of the gridiron, the apartments reserved for the king form the handle, and the eleven square courts into which the interior is divided, indicate the spaces between the iron bars. The wonder of Spain, as it has been called, cost the founder *l.* 2,500,000; but the same wonder is one of the most gloomy and dismal residences that can well be imagined. The pictures that decorate the apartments, the chapel, that serves as a place of interment for the royal family, the relics, and the gardens, may be passed over in silence. The library contains nearly 30,000 volumes, and more than 4000 Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic manuscripts.

The indolence and apathy of the Castilians are more apparent in the

[x] We have adhered to the correct meaning of the word Escurial, but M. Menano supposes the name of the palace to be derived from the Latin word Esculetum, a forest of oaks, in allusion to the lofty trees that formerly shaded the solitude of San Lorenzo. See Dicionario Geografico e Statistico de Espagna y Portuga, the word Escurial.

province of Madrid than in any other. It may be natural for the inhabitants themselves to be of a different opinion, but how else can they account for the small number of manufactories, and particularly for the inferior quality of their products? The places in the vicinity of the capital do not resemble those near other great cities in Europe; the same movement and activity so apparent in the neighbourhood of London or Paris can nowhere be observed. It is only necessary to leave Madrid, to be transported from the opulence and luxury of the capital to the wretchedness and misery that prevail in the country. The character given long ago of the Castilian peasantry by a German traveller,[7] is equally applicable to them at present; revolutions continued with little interruption for a period of thirty years, have made no alteration in their manners and habits. The instruments of labour, their dress, their food proclaim the poverty and ignorance in which they are suffered to languish. Inveterate prejudice opposes itself to every improvement in agriculture and the mechanical arts. But this is not all; the disgust, which the sight of so wretched a population produces, is heightened by their filth; for from the dear price of linen, the trouble of washing it, and the notion that it is sooner worn out by being washed, the men never change their shirts more than once a month. The necessary consequences of the custom are a degree of uncleanliness that occasions cutaneous diseases and the excessive multiplication of vermin. It is usual, not only in villages but in the populous parts of great towns, to see men and women destroying the vermin which they find on each other.

Manners of the people at Madrid.

The siesta, a custom perhaps necessary from the heat of the climate, has been adopted since time immemorial in every part of Spain. At Madrid, the shopkeepers shut their shops from one to three o'clock in the afternoon, the workmen leave their work, all the inhabitants are asleep. In the evening, on the contrary, all are eager to enjoy the cool air, those who are idle, hasten to the public walks; the *cortejos*, or gallants, accompany the fair, and are continually engaged in performing those assiduous and minute attentions, which seldom fail to please a Spanish lady. Such attentions the women of Spain consider indispensable, who, it is certain, have the art of captivating the men, and binding them when once subdued in chains that are only broken by length of years. The bonds imposed by the women, the innumerable services they exact, not the vigilance of the police, have kept Madrid comparatively pure from the scandal of prostitution.

Province of Toledo.

The province of Toledo is not far distant from the banks of the Tagus. Talavera de la Reina, below the confluence of the Tagus and the Alberche, may be considered a burgh or small town, the streets are crooked and ill built; it appears probable from many remains of antiquity, that it was the ancient *Libora*. It boasts of having given birth to the jesuit Mariana, an historian and an astronomer. Alonzo de Herrara gained some celebrity under its walls in the battles between the French and Anglo-Portuguese armies on the 27th and 28th of July, 1809.

Toledo.

Sylva, a Spanish historian, whose etymological researches are very frivolous, supposes that Toledo was founded five hundred and forty years before the Christian era, by a Jewish colony, that called the town *Toledath*, or the mother of nations.[8] The Tagus, which flows beneath the town amidst arid and naked rocks, the Moorish port on the same river, the elegant gate built by the Arabs, and the position of the town on a granite rock, form a sad contrast with the interior, where the only remarkable edifices are the cathedral, an ancient mosque, and the Alcazar, built by the Moors, repaired by Alphonso the Tenth, and em-

[7] Fischer, Reise nach Hispanien.
[8] See the Dictionary of Minano, who gives it the same origin.

bellished by Charles the Fifth and the Cardinal Lorenzana. These edifices rise majestically above old buildings, tortuous and dirty streets. The royal residence of Aranjuez, nearly seven leagues above Toledo, is surrounded with extensive and magnificent gardens; the Tagus washes the castle wall, and forms a cascade down an artificial terrace as broad as the space between the banks. A small town, built with scrupulous exactness after a court plan, rises near the palace.

Province of La Mancha.

The southern part of New Castile forms the province of La Mancha, in which three cities are contained, Alcaraz, Almagro, and Civdad-Real, the capital. In the first, which stands on an eminence near the banks of the Guadarmena, are seen the remains of a Roman aqueduct; the second, situated in a very fertile part of the province, indicates by its name an Arabic origin; many persons, from different parts of the kingdom, repair to its fair, which is held every year on St. Batholomew's day. Civdad-Real, famous for the tribunal of the *Santa-Harmandad*, established by Ferdinand the Second in 1249, was also important for its manufactories and the number of its population. It contains three hospitals, and a fine church dedicated to the virgin of Prado, the tutelar saint of the town.

Estremadura.

Leaving the fruitful but ill-cultivated territory of La Mancha, the plains destitute of trees, the marshes and pastures covered with flocks, we may enter Estremadura. The name of the province has been derived from two Latin words, *Extrema ora;* the boundary of the conquests gained by Alphonso the Tenth in the thirteenth century, the western extremity still forms the boundary between Portugal and Spain. The Tagus and the Guadiana flowing parallel to each other from east to west, divide Estremadura into three portions, and the mountains of Mames and Montanches into two nearly equal parts. During the Roman empire it was the richest country in Spain, but now, the poorest and the worst peopled.

Character of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Estremadura are more taciturn and grave than the other Spaniards, qualities which depend less perhaps on their physical constitution than on the nature of the country they inhabit; steep mountains, rapid rivers, and the want of roads, are so many barriers to communication. Thus, the Estremaduran, completely isolated, becomes regardless of his welfare, and careless about improving his condition; hence his habitual indolence, the blame of that indolence, however, ought not to be imputed to himself, but rather to the Spanish government. If the Estremadurans were excited by the hopes of wealth, or any stimulus of the same sort, they might be active, enterprising, indefatigable; for no other people are more patient of labour, none braver in war; the best horsemen in the Spanish army are natives of Estremadura.

Chief towns of the districts.

Plasencia, on the banks of the Gertes, has, at a distance, the appearance of a fine town; the old walls in a state of tolerable preservation, six gates, five hospitals, an episcopal palace, and particularly the aqueduct composed of eighty arches, are the principal ornaments. The Roman inscriptions, and other ancient remains in the same place, attest its antiquity; but it is doubtful whether it bore in ancient times the name of *Ambracia* or *Deobriga*. Coria, encompassed with walls, in which the architecture of the Romans may be easily discovered, was without doubt the ancient Taurium, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, although a Spanish author supposes its name to be of Arabic origin.[a] The situation of Coria on a hill, the church and old dungeon, which is larger than any other building, give it an imposing appearance.

[a] M. Minano, Diccionario Geograficio e Studistico.

Alcantara. Alcantara, another chief town of a district, received its present name from the Arabians; it signifies the bridge, for when these foreigners took possession of the town, they were struck with the fineness of the Roman bridge over the Tagus; that magnificent monument of Trajan's reign has resisted the effects of time and political commotions. It rises to the height of two hundred and eleven feet ten inches above the river, it is equal in breadth to twenty-seven feet six inches, and in length to five hundred and sixty-eight feet. Of the six arches, the two in the centre are ninety-four feet wide; a triumphal arch, with an inscription in honour of Trajan, rises in the centre, and a mausoleum constructed by the Roman architect for his cemetry, stands at the extremity towards the town. The same mausoleum owes its preservation to the enormous stones of which it is built; having been changed into a small chapel consecrated to St. Julian, it is at present an object of veneration both to the towns-people and the peasantry. The town was well known in the thirteenth century as being the metropolis of the military order of Calatrava, which then assumed the title of Alcantara. The edifice belonging to these knights may still be seen, it stands on the highest part of the city. Alcantara, with the exception of its antiquities, contains nothing remarkable; indeed it might be difficult to explain the causes of its importance when subject to the Romans, but it must have been a place of considerable consequence, since the inhabitants were able to build the bridge and other monuments which are now in ruins. Different opinions are entertained concerning the ancient name of Alcantara, but it was probably the *Norba Cæsera*, which Pliny calls *Narbonensis Colonia*.

Several small towns are situated on the sides or base of a mountainous range that extends from the Tagus to the Sierra de Montanches. Of these towns Caceres is the most important, the capital of a district, the ancient *Castra Cæcilia*. A statue erected to the genius of Augustus, serves still to adorn the market place. Trujilo, the chief town of another district, was the Roman city of *Turria Julia*, and the birthplace of the famous Pizarro. Merida, now an insignificant town, was formerly the most flourishing of the Roman colonies; as the epoch of its origin is unknown, the Spaniards attribute its foundation to Tubal, and affirm that it was first called *Morat*, a name, according to their own confession, derived from a Greek word, which may either signify a *mulberry tree* or a *tribe*, for it admits of a double etymology. It cannot, however, be denied that it was called *Emerita Augusta* by Augustus, when he gave it to his soldiers as a recompense for their valour. At the time of its splendour, it was nearly six leagues in circumference; the majestic remains which it still possesses, are the best proofs of its past prosperity; they have induced many strangers to visit it. Merida rises on the banks of the Guadiana; the old bridge over the river has been attributed to Trajan; although of very different dimensions, it is not less remarkable than the one at Alcantara for its solidity and fine preservation. It consists of sixty arches, which extend to the length of two thousand eight hundred feet, on a breadth of twenty-three. Another Roman bridge, in a very entire state, bears the name of *Puente d'Albaregas*. Beyond the walls are situated a theatre, a naumachia, a circus, the remains of three aqueducts, and four Roman ways. The town itself is little inferior to any in Italy in the number of its monuments; within the walls may be seen a fine triumphal arch, the ruins of several temples, columns, chapters, Roman inscriptions, and other remains now used in building houses.

Caceres. Merida.

Badajos. On the banks of the Guadiana, but nearer its embouchure, towards the extremity of the province, is situated the ancient *Pax Augusta*, or Badajos, the capital, of which the Arabic name *Beledoix* denotes a salubrious country. Very different from Merida, it contains no

monument of past magnificence; a modern bridge, however, the work of Philip the Second, may vie with the ancient in Emerita Augusta; it is formed by twenty-eight arches, equal in length to 1874 feet, and in breadth to twenty-three. The cathedral is adorned with fine paintings by Cerezo and Morales, the latter of whom was born in the town. Olivenza, a fortified burgh, was ceded to Spain in 1801; but in maps published since that period, it is marked by mistake in the kingdom of Portugal. Zafra, a small town remarkable for the beauty of its situation, rises in the valley of Telares. Lastly, Llerena, the chief town in a district, appears to have been the ancient Regiana. It stands on a plain covered with olive trees, and commanded by the mountains of San Miguel and San Bernardo, continuations of the Sierra Morena. At a short distance from the town are the fruitful pastures of St. Martin, on which numerous flocks and several thousand oxen are fattened.

Andalusia.

The fruitful province of Andalusia is bounded by the kingdom of Algarva, Estremadura, New Castile, Murcia, and the Mediterranean; but before describing it more minutely, it may be as well to examine the Sierra Morena, formerly the retreat of the most intrepid bandits, and the terror of travellers, until a French engineer traced the famous road from Madrid to Cadiz. A tribute of praise, too, may be offered to the memory of a sage and philanthropist; nay, the traveller who crosses these mountains, may probably inquire by what fatality men entitled to the gratitude and reward of their country, have so often suffered persecution and disgrace.

Neuvas Poblaciones.

The mountains of Sierra Morena, inhabited and cultivated during the time of the Moors, were, after the expulsion of these foreigners, covered with forests, which afforded shelter to robbers and wild beasts. It was proposed under the reign of Charles the Third to bring the waste lands into cultivation, and to people the most fertile districts. Don Pablo Olavide, the statesman who formed the project, was entrusted with its execution; his plans were conducted with so much zeal and intelligence, that their success surpassed his expectation. Fifty-eight villages or burghs rose on the heights which command La Mancha and Andalusia. The country was called *Neuvas Poblaciones*, *New Populations*, and formed a province of which Carolina, or the capital, was soon peopled with three thousand inhabitants. But the virtuous Olavide was hated or envied by a monk belonging to the order of the Capuchins.

Having been denounced for some indiscreet expression, which had escaped him in the heat of debate, and having languished in the prisons of the holy office, he was condemned to eight years confinement in a monastery, declared incapable of holding any place under government, and deprived of all his possessions. Olavide escaped from his prison, and found refuge in France; he remained in that country during the most sanguinary period of the revolution, and was at last permitted to return to Spain. The disgrace of the same person, the changes in the Spanish government, and its diminished resources, have retarded the advancement of these settlements.

Character.

The Andalusian character resembles that of the Spanish and Arab; with the vivacity natural to the inhabitants in the southern climates of Europe, they unite the imagination and carelessness of the people in the east. Sober and patient, they are always gay and lively, although in a state of the utmost wretchedness; but necessity renders them active, industrious, and even ingenious, in discovering resources. They are considered a boastful people, says M. Minano,[b] and their Arabic pronunciation accounts for the epithets bestowed on them both by Spaniards and foreigners.

[b] Diccionario geografico estadistico de Espana y Portugal. Article Andalusia.

Kingdom of Jaen. The kingdom of Jaen, the smallest of the seven provinces in Andalusia, is divided into five districts, the chief towns of which shall be shortly mentioned. Ubeda, an Arabic town between the Guadalquivir and the Guadalimar, stands on a declivity surrounded by mountains and mountain passes; it has its woollen manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in horses, which are much valued throughout Spain. Baeza, the ancient *Beatia*, rises on a height; the adjacent country is said to be very healthy. The bishop's palace, and the church of St. Mary d'Alcasar, are not the only edifices which adorn the town; the streets are broad and straight; but it may be regretted that they are so much deserted,—more inhabitants are certainly wanting. Andujar, a well built town, and important from the industry of the inhabitants, is built on the right bank of the Guadalquivir, on which a bridge of fifteen arches has been erected. There are not fewer than three manufactories of painted porcelain, thirty of earthenware, and five soap works; it exports every year four hundred wagons of porcelain and earthenware, the latter consisting principally of *alcarrazas*, which are used in cooling water by promoting evaporation. Some authors suppose that Jaen, the capital, was the ancient *Flavium aurgitanum*, a magnificent cathedral built in the form of a Latin cross, and on the site of an ancient mosque; twelve parishes, fourteen convents, and several hospitals, render it, when seen at a distance, like a town of forty thousand inhabitants, although the population amounts hardly to half the number. Martos, supposed to be *Tucci colonia*, is commanded by a very high rock, from which Ferdinand the Fourth precipitated two brothers of the name of Carvagal, who were suspected, without any foundation, to have murdered a knight of the family of Benavides. The two brothers protested their innocence in vain, and, according to a rural tradition, while they rolled from stone to stone, a voice was heard citing Ferdinand to appear on a certain day before the judgment seat of God; on the day mentioned Ferdinand died at Jaen.

Lucena. Lucena, a considerable town in the kingdom of Cordova, and the capital of a district, carries on a trade in wine. Montilla, also the chief town in a district, is a place of greater industry, although less populous than Lucena. Four porcelain works, several linen manufactories, fifty oil mills, and many other works tend to enrich its laborious inhabitants.

Bujalance, which many consider the Roman city of *Calpurnium*, is situated in a large and fruitful plain, that lies to the west of the road between Andujar and Cordova. The trade of the place consists in cloth and woollen stuffs.

Cordova. At the distance of some leagues from Cordova, near the Venta of Alcolea, one of the finest bridges in Europe has been erected on the road that leads from Andujar, over the Guadalquivir. The entrance into the celebrated Cordova, the Roman *Corduba*, is not calculated to give the stranger a favourable opinion of the town. A mass of houses built without any regularity or elegance, form many narrow, crooked, and dirty streets. The space which the town occupies, although very great, consists for the most part of gardens; it is enclosed by old walls, flanked with solid towers of Roman or Moorish construction. One monument, the only relic of Moorish power, attracts notice; it is the magnificent mosque built by Abderam in the year 770, long a principal temple of Islamism, second only to the one at Mecca; at present the sacred images of catholicism rise round the verses of the Koran. The edifice forms a rectangle of 440 feet in breadth by 620 in length, including an extent of 210 feet, which is laid out as a garden, and enclosed with walls and arcades. A great many pillars arranged in the form of a quincunx are crowded in the interior of the building; indeed, it is affirmed that there are not fewer than 850 of different sorts, such as marble, granite,

and porphyry. These columns rest on very low pedestals; they are adorned with elegant chapters, and support a double range of arcades. Not far from the mosque, or *mezquita*, as the Spaniards still call it, is a fine bridge of sixteen arches, built on the Guadalquivir by the Romans and the Moors. In the neighbourhood of the town are seen the ruins of a building which the people call the house of Seneca; it cannot perhaps be determined whether the tradition be well or ill founded, but it is certain that Cordova was the birth-place of both the Senecas, of Lucain, Avicenna, Averroes, and Gonzalvo Fernandez, better known by the name of Gonzalvo de Cordova. In the time of the Moors, the population amounted to 300,000 inhabitants; in the seventeenth century it was reduced to 60,000; at present it does not contain more than 46,000. While the Romans and the Moors were masters of Spain, Cordova was a place of great trade and industry; the inhabitants are still employed in dressing morocco leather, an art which they learnt from the Saracens; the other manufactures are ribands, gold lace, and hats.

Province of Seville.

The two provinces that have been last mentioned are not together more important than the province of Seville. Ecija, the Roman *Stigis*, one of the largest towns in Seville, stands between two high hills on the banks of the Genil, over which a stone bridge is erected; the heat during the greater part of the year is so excessive, that the Spaniards call the town the *Sarten de Andalucia, or frying-pan of Andalusia.* Carmona, an opulent and well built city, is mentioned by ancient writers, and it still retains an ancient name; two of the gates that communicate with the town were built by the Romans. It possesses at present a considerable trade, consisting of cloth, soap, linen, porcelain, and morocco leather.

Seville.

Seville, a town founded by the Phenicians, consequently one of the oldest in Spain, was also the most celebrated, both in ancient times and during the middle ages. It is still a place of great importance, both from its size, the number and magnificence of the public buildings, and the wealth and industry of the inhabitants. It was called *Hispalis* by the Phenicians on account of the fruitful country in the vicinity. Julius Cesar gave it the name of *Julia Romula* in vain, for the Arabs by changing it into *Sevilla*, indicated the fruitfulness of its situation, and rendered it analogous in meaning to the one of Phenician origin. Seville is admirably situated; the horizon is bounded by mountains, of which the nearest depend on the Sierra Nia de Ronda, and terminate towards the west in the long chain which forms the Sierra Nevada. It rises in the midst of a plain covered with olive plantations, hamlets, villages, and convents; the Guadalquivir, which fertilizes the same plain, winds at the base of the walls. The latter, flanked with 166 towers, form a circumference of two leagues, exclusively of the suburbs; if these be taken into account, the extent may be nearly doubled. The population of Seville was probably exaggerated at the time that Saint Ferdinand took it from the Moors; in this way the Spanish writers were perhaps desirous to magnify the glory of the conquest. It is certain, however, that since the same period, the population has considerably diminished. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, it contained 130,000 inhabitants, while the cloth and silk manufactories furnished employment to 16,000 workmen; at the end of the same century the population was reduced to 100,000, and not more than a thousand workmen were employed in its manufactories; the number of inhabitants at present does not exceed 91,000.

The Spaniards, accustomed to extol the beauty of their country, express their admiration of Castile in the following popular couplet:

Que non a visto Sevilla
Non a visto maravilla.

But Seville, with all its wonders, is a very gloomy and dirty town; the streets are so narrow that it is not safe or easy to pass through them in a carriage, yet the marks of wheels may be seen in most of them; in others a person with his arms extended might touch the opposite houses. There are in the town and suburbs, 564 streets, 12,055 houses, 62 squares, and 32 churches. Of the fifteen gates some are of good architecture, and the one that leads to the Triana, the largest of the suburbs, forms a triumphal arch adorned with Doric columns.[c] The public buildings in Seville are the greatest ornaments; those worthy of notice are the archbishop's palace, a large and richly decorated edifice; the alcazar, or palace of the Moorish kings, a work completed by Peter the Cruel and his successors, remarkable both for the elegance and singularity of its form, and the fine gardens that surround it. The others are the townhouse, the cannon foundry, the college of St. Elme, and the Lonja, or treasury, a square building of Tuscan architecture, where the archives relative to the discoveries made by Spanish navigators are preserved. But the cathedral church, more imposing than any other edifice, and perhaps the largest in Spain, was built in the beginning of the fifteenth century. It is 400 feet in length, 300 in breadth, and 150 in height; the interior is divided into nine naves, adorned with statues, paintings, and tombs. There rest the ashes of St. Ferdinand, styled in France the Spanish St. Lewis, of Alphonso, a king and an astronomer, and lastly of Christopher Columbus, on whose tomb is engraved the following simple epitaph:

A Castilla y Arragon
Otro Mondo dio Colomb.[d]

The Giralda. | The most curious part of the cathedral is the celebrated tower of the Giralda, the work of Geber, an Arabian architect, who raised it to the height of 250 feet; but in the year 1668, the height was increased by a hundred feet. From this square tower the view extends to the distance of more than fifteen leagues. No stair leads to the summit, but an inclined plane, which is said to be of so gentle an acclivity that a horse might ascend it at full gallop,—it is very doubtful that the experiment has ever been tried. The cupola is surmounted by a gilt bronze figure representing Faith, and serving the purpose of a weathercock;[e] although weighing more than thirty-four quintals, it is turned by the gentlest breeze.

Ruins of Italica. | The amphitheatre of Italica has been considered the finest ancient monument in the neighbourhood of Seville; it was formerly the principal ornament of *Santi Ponce*, now an insignificant village, but once a flourishing city, the chief town in a diócess, and the birth-place of three emperors, Trajan, Hadrian, and Theodosius.

The remaining towns in the province may be shortly described. Utrera was probably the ancient *Orippo;* it is small but well built; the walls have been destroyed; the adjacent country is fruitful in olives, vines, and pasturage, on which excellent horses are reared. Maguer possesses an ecclesiastical tribunal, a hospital, two convents, two Latin schools; and a harbour on the Tinto, from which wines and the other products of the province are exported; but the principal trade consists in spirits; there are not fewer than sixty brandy distilleries in the town. Huelva, the chief town of a district, at the confluence of the Odiel and the Tinto, stands on the site of *Onuba;* the harbour may be perhaps as much frequented as

[c] The following verses are inscribed on the gate of Carne:

Condidit Alcides, renovavit Ulius urbem
Restituit Christo, Fernandes tertius heros.

[d] Columbus gave another world to Castile and Arragon.

[e] Descripcion astistera de la Catedral de Sevilla, by Don Juan Augustin Cean Bermudez.

the one at Maguer. Lastly, Ayamonte, a fortified town at the mouth of the Guadiana, on the confines of Andalusia and Portugal, has been enriched by commerce and sardel fisheries.

The province of Cadiz.

A recent subdivision of Castile forms at present the province of Cadiz. San Luca de Barramada, the nearest place in the province to Ayamonte, lies at the mouth of the Guadiana; as it was formerly called Lucifer, it it has been supposed that the god of light was worshipped in the town; it carries on a trade in wines, in the produce of the adjoining districts, and in different sorts of liqueurs. The neighbouring country is very fruitful; but on the opposite bank of the river, sandy plains, as sterile as the deserts of Africa, extend to a considerable distance.

Xeres.

Rota, a place celebrated for its wines, rises on the coast. Xeres, or Jeres de la Frontera, the ancient *Asta Regia*, stands at the foot of a hill in a very fruitful part of the country. The produce of the vineyards amounts annually to 7758 tons; they are deposited in cellars, which, from their extent and solidity, may be mentioned among the curiosities of the town. An old wall, in which arcades and passages have been cut, divides Xeres into two parts. On one side of the wall the streets are narrow and the houses are ill built; on the other, the streets are broad and regular, composed chiefly of neat and well built houses. The royal castle, remarkable for its large towers, appears to be a very ancient building.

Arcos de la Frontera, a small town with long streets, ill adapted for foot passengers, because they are wholly unpaved, rises at the distance of four leagues from Xeres, on the steep banks of the Guadalete. It is situated in the same district as the last town; antiquaries consider it the ancient *Arcobriga*.

Cadiz.

It is necessary to cross the Guadalete to visit Cadiz, that important city, whose inhabitants are said to be the most civilized in Spain, but who imprudently, and without any chance of success, erected twice the standard of independence in the course of fifteen years. *Gaddir*, which signifies a fortified place, was the ancient name of Cadiz; the same name was afterwards changed into Gades by the Greeks and Romans. Strabo attributes the foundation of Gades to the Phenicians; he compares it to the most powerful towns in Italy; although the inhabitants, says the geographer, possess only a small island and little land on the continent, they arm the largest and the greatest number of vessels that are employed in the commerce of the Mediterranean and the ocean.[f] Cadiz, from the advantages of its position, may still be ranked among the most commercial towns in Europe. That part of the Spanish coast has undergone many changes since the time of Strabo; it is probable, however, that the natural mole which unites Cadiz with the island of Leon, did not exist in his time, or that Gades was situated in an island, which has since become a peninsula. This opinion appears to be confirmed by Pliny, who says that the town is situated in an island near the island of Juno, which can be no other than that of Leon.

Fortifications.

Cadiz is at present the chief town in one of the three maritime departments in Spain. Defended on all sides by ramparts and bastions, nature as well as art have contributed to its safety. It is guarded by sand banks and rocks towards the north and the west, and on these rocks are the two forts of St. Catherine and St. Sebastian. To add to its security, the Cortadura or canal has been cut across the headland that unites it to Leon; by this means, every communication with the island may be easily intercepted. The blockade made by the French, lasted from the year 1809 to 1812; but the only inconvenience which the

[f] Book III. chap. 5. § 4.

inhabitants sustained, was that of bringing water, at a considerable expense, from the port of St. Mary, for there are no wells or springs in the town. The houses are well built and whitened with great care; their projecting roofs may darken the streets, but they serve as a shade against the rays of the sun. The town as a whole may bear a comparison with any other in Spain, but the edifices are by no means remarkable; the cathedral is small and shabby, the town-house is an irregular edifice of very ordinary architecture, the prison is without doubt the finest building in Cadiz. The good order that prevails in the interior of the prison, and the discipline to which the prisoners are subjected, are creditable to the public functionaries. If it be considered, that besides the foundling hospital there are five others, one of which contains 800 persons, who are cleanly and well kept, it may be allowed that the inhabitants are neither deficient in charity, nor injudicious in the method of administering it. The people of Cadiz are said to be better informed than the other Spaniards; at all events, if they are not so, it is not for want of schools; it contains, besides many others, a seminary and college, of which the professors and teachers are jesuits; an academy of fine arts, a naval seminary, schools of mathematics, surgery, and medicine.

Buildings.

The island of Leon is separated from the continent by a branch of the sea 600 feet in breadth, which the Spaniards call the *Rio Santi-Petri;* a bridge erected over it communicates with the road that leads to *Medina Sidonia*, a small town on the summit of a conical rock, famous for its medicinal waters and a particular sort of clay, so well adapted for making bricks and earthenware, that these articles are exported into most parts of Andalusia. The name of the town is of Arabic origin, but the number of Roman inscriptions renders it probable that it was the ancient *Asindo*. The town and harbour of Tarifa are situated towards the coast, at five leagues from lake Janda, in the southern extremity of Spain. It was the Roman *Mellaria*, a place of some repute for its salt springs in the time of Strabo. As a fortified place, it may be of considerable importance; but the inhabitants attempted without success to unite it to the small island of the same name, and from which it is only separated by the distance of three or four hundred feet.

Medina Sidonia.

The road that leads to the province of Grenada, the most important province in Andalusia, is at one part not more than two leagues removed from Gibraltar, an almost impregnable rock that has belonged to the English since the war of the Succession; an account of it shall be given in the description of the English possessions.

Province of Grenada.

In the rich country where the towns rival each other in industry, one may ascend from the low and burning plains on the Mediterranean to the cold regions of Nevada, to the principal chain which extends along the province. Cool springs temper the heat of the climate; the meadows are enamelled with flowers; the same province is intersected with delightful vallies, and better watered than any other in the peninsula; it has been so much favoured by nature, that it was the last which the persecuted Moors determined to abandon. Grenada contains besides several important towns; Ronda, or the first on the road towards Madrid, is divided into two parts by a frightful precipice, which reaches from the summit to the base of the height on which it is built. The chasm may be about five or six hundred feet in depth, and a torrent flows below it. The torrent was called the *Gaudalvin* by the Arabs, a compound word which signifies literally a hollow stream; but the Spaniards changed the name into Guadiara; it falls into the sea between Estepona and Gibraltar. Two bridges lead to both quarters of the town; the largest, or the new bridge, is so much elevated above the torrent, that the passengers can hardly hear the noise of the waters. A stair consisting of four hundred steps leads to the cascade of El Tajo. Ronda, as its

Ronda.

name indicates, stands on the site of *Arunda*, a place mentioned in Pliny and Ptolemy. The ruins of the ancient *Acinipo*, the present *Ronda la Vieja*, or old Ronda, are not more than two leagues distant. The remains of a theatre may be still seen; several inscriptions, medals, and statues have of late years been discovered. Estepona, a maritime town, is situated at the base of the Sierra Merveja or vermilion mountains, well known for their mines of plumbago. Marbella, the chief town in a district abounding with minerals, might become an important place, if the roads were kept in such a state as to afford better means of communication; it exports different manufactures, and many vessels frequent the port on account of the fisheries in the neighbourhood. The streets are straight; it is adorned with several fountains and a fine public walk, from which the view extends along the Mediterranean. According to a tradition, the same view was so much admired by Ferdinand and Isabella, that the queen, struck with the beauty of the sea, exclaimed, *Que mar tan bella!* which exclamation, say the chroniclers, accounts for the name of Marbella. Whatever the origin of its present name may have been, it cannot be doubted that the place is very ancient; it has been supposed that it was called *Barbesola*, but it may be considered more probable that it stands on the site of *Cilniana*, a town mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine.

Province of Malaga.

It is only in the latter part of the year that rains are common in the fine climate of Malaga; in other seasons, the sky is almost always serene and cloudless. The base and sides of the mountain that enclose the bay on which Malaga stands, are covered with olive, orange trees, and fruitful vineyards, or varied with cotton fields and plantations of sugar cane. Thus the town enjoys the advantages of a fine climate and a convenient harbour. The men are affable and polite, the women are considered the fairest of any in Andalusia. Malaga is encompassed with a double wall, defended by bastions, and a castle built by the Moors, on the summit of the rock which commands the town. Two extensive moles shelter the harbour against every storm; on one of them revolving lights have lately been erected. The inhabitants are supplied with water from a fine aqueduct, a work which Molina, a wealthy citizen, built at his own expense. Many Moorish houses have been replaced by modern buildings; the episcopal palace, a very large edifice, is built in the best style of architecture; the cathedral has been equally admired, its tower reaches to the height of 200 feet. The present town rises near the site of the ancient *Malaca*, a place of great trade, which Strabo affirms was founded by the Phenicians.

Vineyards.

The rich vineyards of Malaga produce annually about 13,340 tuns of wine. There are not fewer than thirty different sorts of grapes; they are classed according to the seasons in which they ripen. The early grapes are collected in June; they yield a thick and sweet wine, which is prized by many; they are valuable, too, inasmuch as they furnish the best raisins, a very lucrative branch of the Malaga trade; but for that purpose they must be cut at the middle of the stalk, and allowed to dry fifteen days in the sun; they are afterwards packed. The ordinary grapes are gathered in September, and their produce form the strong and dry wines, which are exported into different countries. But the late grapes produce the best wines; one sort, or the *guindas* wine, brings the highest price; it has been so called from the buds of a particular cherry tree, which are put into the vats. The products of Malaga are exported by the nations that consume them: out of all the ships which enter the harbour, certainly not more than a seventh part are Spanish vessels.

A road that winds along the coast, leads from Malaga to *Velez Malaga*, which, although insignificant in point of population, is a place of considerable industry and trade; it stands on the side of *Menoba*, and the

vineyards in the neighbourhood are almost as much famed as those of Malaga.

Lovers' Mountain. Antequera, or the ancient *Antecaria*, situated between the heights of the same name and the Guadiaro, contains a greater number of inhabitants than the last town. The Lovers' Mountain (*Pena de los Enamorados*) rises in the vicinity; it has been celebrated by an act of heroism not unexampled in the history of Spain during the middle ages, or even in modern times. A christian knight had been taken prisoner by a Moorish prince; during his captivity he fell in love with the daughter of the infidel; resolved to celebrate their union in a christian country, and at the foot of the altar, they had proceeded to the frontiers, when they were overtaken by the prince and his troops; they sought a hiding place in the caves of the mountain, but the enraged father ordered the soldiers to seize the fugitives. His daughter remonstrated that she was a christian, that she had married, and threatened to destroy herself if he approached; but the father was inexorable, and the two lovers rushed headlong from the summit of a precipice. A cross indicates the place, and serves still to commemorate the event.

The province of Grenada is divided into two nearly equal parts, the northern and the southern. The towns in the southern are either ports, or situated at a short distance from the sea. Almunacar, of which the harbour is sheltered from the east and west winds, stands at the foot of a hill, where are seen the remains of a citadel, that was used as a treasury by the Moorish kings, and also as a prison for their ambitious relatives. The country round Motril is fruitful in sugar cane, and according to the Spaniards, the rum extracted from it is not inferior to any from the West Indies: the town may be about two leagues from the shore; it stands on a road that leads in one direction to Malaga, in the other to Almeria, a city that has been for ages wealthy and industrious, occupying the site of *Margis*, a town of which the origin is lost in the night of time; the harbour which the ancients called *Magnus Portus* is still well frequented.

Alhama. Loja, situated at the base of a chain that bears its name, is noted for its salt springs. Alhama, of which the Arabic name signifies a *thermal spring*, stands higher above the level of the sea than any other town in Europe. The Moorish houses, the old walls that encompass it, and other peculiarities render it difficult of description. The country above it is covered with snow during six months, and scorched by the sun the rest of the year. The baths at a quarter of a league from the walls, are much frequented. The waters are thick, sulphureous, and slightly coloured; the place from which the spring issues, is arid and desert. When the rays of the sun fall on the water in the baths, it exhibits a singular appearance, inasmuch as it seems to be covered with an unctuous film; in cold weather vapours rise from it, and the pipes through which it flows are lined with a white and soft substance. The road to Velez Malaga extends along the mountains of Alhama, and the traveller observes a curious passage, the Puerta de Zaflaraya, a natural gate in the midst of high rocks: no sooner has he passed it, than very different scenery appears before him; the eye wanders over an immense extent of country, the southern declivities of the Betic range, the coasts of Grenada, the Mediterranean and the African shores.

But the same road leads to an important town, a place fatal to the Moorish power in Spain. On the left bank of the Genil, and in a pleasant country, is situated the city of Santa Fe, which was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1807. It was founded by the Castillian heroine, the wife of Ferdinand the Catholic. During the siege of Grenada, the queen made a vow not to change her shift until the capital had opened its gates. To intimidate the enemy, her camp was changed into a fortified town, and the town was called Santa Fe. The Moors fought long and valiantly, but

it appeared at last that resistance was vain. It had been observed that the queen's shift had been so long worn that it assumed a yellow hue; hence the origin of what the Spaniards call to this day an *Isabella colour.* It was also within the walls of Santa Fe that Ferdinand and Isabella approved of the first expedition undertaken by Christopher Columbus.

Grenada.

The walks on the banks of the Genil indicate the approach of Grenada,[s] through which the Daro flows; it is encompassed by woods, and watered by limpid streams, while the gardens and groves in the neighbouring heights diffuse fragrance to a distance. The Sierra Morena may be about half a mile from the town, the summits are covered with eternal snow, but the cold of winter is never felt at the base. Grenada was founded by the Moors: the present state of the town may be contrasted with what it was in the time of its splendour. When the crescent floated on the mosques, it contained four hundred thousand inhabitants; it occupied a circumference of three leagues, which was defended by more than a thousand towers. It is still adorned with several fine buildings; there are two large squares, sixteen of a smaller size, many public fountains, seven colleges, eleven hospitals, an elegant theatre built by the French, and sixty-three churches; the most remarkable are the churches of San-Geromino, Santa-Cruz, San-Juan de Dios, and the cathedral in which are contained the tombs of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Philip the First, and Queen Joan. But these edifices appear insignificant near others, for which the people of Grenada are indebted to the genius and luxury of the Arabs. Charles the Fifth, during the splendour of his power, erected in vain a palace which was to surpass in magnificence whatever had been constructed by the Moors; for in beholding this palace which was planned and executed while the arts were regenerating in Europe, one does not regret that it remains in an unfinished state, but that a part of the Alhambra was destroyed in order to obtain a convenient site. This edifice of Charles the Fifth, although large, although adorned with porticos, and the most costly marble, is infinitely inferior to the Moorish palace and fortress, in which the apparent freshness of the ornaments, the galleries supported by light columns, the elegance of the courts, the arcades that surround them, indicate its superiority over the modern buildings in Grenada.

The same town was the birthplace of the poet Hurtado de Mendoza, and of the jesuit Suarez, who has obtained a sad celebrity in the provincial letters of Pascal. At a short distance from the walls may be seen the site of *Eliberis*, a Roman town, where valuable antiquities have been discovered.

Guadix.

Guadix, situated in a valley on the banks of the Rio Guadix, is the metropolis of a district; it was within its old walls that the Moors made a long and obstinate resistance after the conquest of the capital. It stands probably near the site of *Acci*, a Betic city; that it does so might be inferred from the ancient name without any other proof, for by prefixing the word *gua*, which signifies *running water*, the Arabs changed it into *Guadiacci*, and the Spaniards corrupted it into Guadix. The country round Baza abounds in hemp and lint, the town rises in a fruitful valley at the base of a mountain which bears its name; it was the ancient town of *Basti*, the capital of the *Bastitani*. Lastly, Huescar, situated in the same district as Baza, and on the banks of the Barbato, carries on a trade in woollen stuffs; the village of Huescaa la Vieja, near its walls, is all that remains of *Osca*, a place founded by the Carthaginians.

Province of Murcia.

Another province on the continent remains to be described; that of Murcia, formerly entitled a kingdom, and contiguous to

[s] The Spaniards call it Granada.

Andalusia, New Castile, and the province of Valencia. It does not extend beyond the basin of the Segura, it is divided into nine districts.

Lorca, one of the most important towns in the province, is the ancient *Eliocroca;* its situation on the northern declivity of the Sierra del Cano, rendered the calamity that befel it in 1802, more disastrous. A reservoir in which the streams of the neighbouring torrents are collected, and which serves to supply the country people with water for the irrigation of their lands, burst suddenly, inundated all the lower part of the town, and destroyed more than six hundred persons, together with a great number of cattle. The loss sustained by the inundation in the country and in the town was calculated at fifty million reals. Murcia, a wealthy and populous city, is situated in a plain watered by the Seguro, the streams of which are confined by an embankment. The cathedral may be the finest edifice, but both the outside and the interior are loaded with ornaments; the others are the town-house and the royal silk manufactory; the raw material with which the last is supplied, forms the principal wealth of the district. It appears from Roman inscriptions, and other antiquities, that Murcia was formerly called *Vergilia*. But Carthagena, the most important town in the province, both from its commerce and its port, which may contain forty ships of the line, and a great many small vessels, was founded by Asdrubal the Carthaginian. The territory in which it is situated, separated from that of Murcia by lofty heights, contained so many mines, that it was long to the Romans what Mexico was afterwards to the Spaniards. They worked silver and different useful metals. A very large cavern about three miles distant from the town, now called the cave of St. John, is nothing else than an ancient mine. The thermal springs in the neighbouring mountains are still frequented, and many labourers are employed in working alum. Carthagena, perhaps the finest city in Spain, is defended by several forts along the coast, and also by the fort Atalaya on an eminence which commands the walls. The naval arsenal is very large; the yards, docks, and rectangular basin, occupy nearly the western half of the town. The cathedral, or the most remarkable edifice, is formed by three naves, and within them are contained several richly sculptured altars. The depth and size of the harbour in this chief town of a maritime department, are not the only advantages which it furnishes to the Spanish navy.

Baleares. | Ivica, or Ibiza, one of the Baleares, at no great distance from Carthagena, is still nearer the harbour of Denia: Iviza, the capital, stands on the declivity of a steep rock, which rises near a bay; on the summit of the same rock are the bishop's palace, the cathedral, and the governor's castle. The town is encompassed with walls, which, although they are no security against the attacks of pirates, defend it at least against the natives of the island; for the latter are so much oppressed by taxes, that finding it impossible to pay them, they are apt to revolt. The country round the town is marshy, but fruitful in cotton; the rest of the island abounds in a sort of pitch, obtained from the Aleppo pine, (*Pinus Alepensis*,) and which, along with the produce of the salt works, forms the principal branches of commerce.

Manners. | Ivica contains besides some scattered habitations that have been dignified with the name of villages. If the inhabitants are rude and uncultivated, it should be considered that they have been long degraded by superstition and poverty. Their songs consist of one or two modulations; the monotonous sounds of the flagelet, accompanied with the tambourin and the castanet, make up all the music that they use in their wild and ungraceful dances.

Costume. | The costume of the peasants consists of a short coat and tight pantaloons that reach to the middle of the leg; they wear a red woollen cap; their *spardilles*, or shoes, resemble in form the wooden

shoes worn by the French, they are made of matweed, and attached by cords of the same substance. The dress of the women is more elegant; they wear a large round hat a little inclined on one side, a handkerchief that covers the neck and descends to the waist, but open behind in order to display their long hair; three necklaces of different sizes are placed above the handkerchief, to two of them crosses are attached; a narrow but richly embroidered apron contrasts well with a dark petticoat; the spardilles are of the same shape as those worn by the men.

Marriages.

The singular manner by which marriages were celebrated in the Balearic islands in the days of Diodorus Siculus, has been mentioned in the account of the ancient inhabitants. The present custom, which appears to have originated from the ancient, although less immoral, is not less ridiculous. As soon as a villager obtains the consent of his future bride, he is considered by her parents as one of the family; but the ceremony does not take place until the end of a year at least; within that period, the young lads in the neighbourhood are permitted to visit the bride on certain days, and to remain alone with her; according to a French traveller, they emulate each other in dissuading her from her purpose by enumerating the vices and bad qualities of her intended husband; the bride is constrained to hear them without a murmur, and as the lover must leave the room when they enter, he suffers during his absence the same vexation which, in all probability, he has before inflicted on others.[h]

Fromentera.

Fromentera, or, as the Spaniards call it, Formentera, is so near the Ivica, that it might be easy, and without doubt, useful to unite them. The inhabitants are scattered in several villages; the island has been represented as infested with serpents, wolves, and foxes, but the only animals in the woods or meadows are sheep and goats, which from neglect have become wild; the flamingo and other birds of passage abound on the shores.

Cabrera.

Cabrera, at a short distance from Majorca, is inhabited by some shepherds, whose wealth consists in their goats. It is well wooded, and three springs serve to supply the inhabitants with wholesome water. The sufferings which the French prisoners experienced on the island about the end of the last war, must ever be remembered with regret by the friends of humanity; they were allowed to perish for want of food, and their bones scattered on the island, attest the cruelty of those to whose care they were entrusted.[i]

Majorca.

The island of Majorca contains sixteen towns, and the average population of each may amount to 4,500 inhabitants; but Palma, or the capital, peopled by 34,000, is the only one worthy of being described. It is encompassed with walls about seven or eight feet thick, with thirteen bastions fifty paces in breadth, and commanded by a castle on the hill of Belver. The houses are built of stone, but the excessive breadth of the balconies darkens and confines the streets. The Lonja that rises above the port, is the only edifice which recalls the former splendour of the town. The tomb of Jayme II. serves to adorn the cathedral; he was king of Majorca; his father conquered the Moors, and took possession of the island in the year 1229. The town, long the principal mart for the commerce between Europe and the east, carries on at present no more trade than what is necessary to supply the wants of the islanders. The Jews are despised by the other inhabitants; many of them are employed in manufacturing jewellery and trinkets.

Dress.

The *Pages*, or rural inhabitants of Majorca, wear a very different dress from the people in Ivica; a round jacket without

[h] M. J. Cambessede Excursions dans les des Baleares.

[i] For the details of these proceedings, disgraceful to a civilized nation, the reader may consult the works of Cambassede.

a collar, sandals, bare legs, and loose breeches, render their costume not unlike that of the Greek peasants; but they may be distinguished by a broad hat, which serves to shade the visage. The women wear sandals; in other respects their dress differs little from that worn in Ivica. The people may be perhaps more superstitious than those in Spain, but they are also more hospitable; as there are no inns in the island, they never refuse to admit strangers, and to share with them whatever they possess.

Minorca. | The people in Minorca resemble those of Majorca in their manners and in their dress, but they are said to be the least superstitious of the Spaniards. Five towns are situated on the island. *Jamna*, now Civdadela, was probably founded by the Carthaginians; with the exception of Mahon, or the capital, it is the largest in Minorca. Broad and straight streets, clean and well built houses, render Mahon an agreeable residence; the cathedral and town-house correspond ill with the rest of the city. The boldness of their pirates, and the safe retreat afforded by their harbour, enabled the inhabitants to amass considerable wealth during the war against Napoleon. The harbour, indeed, is one of the finest in the Mediterranean; the celebrated Andrew Doria is said to have been the author of a Spanish proverb, according to which, the only four good ports in that sea are June, July, August, and Portmahon.[k] It may be about a league in length, and a thousand or twelve hundred yards in breadth; the sides are formed by two steep heights. The breadth of the entrance is about 300 yards, and vessels can sail in the neighbourhood without being endangered by rocks.

Commerce and industry. | Having endeavoured to describe the principal towns and islands in Spain, it remains for us to make one or two remarks on the commerce and industry of that fine country. It has been already seen that it abounds in soda, salt, iron, and different metals; that it produces oil, fruits, and wine, the best wool in the world, and silk that is only surpassed by that of Italy. The value of the wines, which the Spaniards consider the most lucrative of their productions, might be considerably increased, if any thing like an equable system of duties were introduced. It exports at present about twenty-five or thirty thousand casks, and the price obtained for them does not exced *l.*625,000. The silk in the provinces of Arragon, Valencia, Grenada, and Murcia, might soon rival any in Italy, if exportation were encouraged, and the mulberry cultivated with care. The mines, although rich in different metals, do not afford all the advantages that might be expected from them. Lastly, could it be believed that the Spaniards, with so great an extent of coast, depended on foreigners for all the dry or salt fish which they consume. A Spanish author calculates that the money given every year for imports, exceeds *l.*500,000; thus the consumption in the interior nearly counterbalances all the profits it derives from the fecundity of the soil.

Foreign trade. | The insignificance of their foreign trade ought not to be attributed to the indifference of the Spaniards. Although from their situation, few nations have such facilities in forming a mercantile navy, the Spanish flag is the one which mariners observe very rarely on the sea. The Spaniards hold some intercourse with different ports in the Mediterranean, but with few on the Baltic; if they crossed the Atlantic, it was only on account of their American possessions.

The taxes with which the products of agriculture and industry are loaded, the diversity of weights, measures, and money, the bad state of the roads, the scarcity of canals, for the most useful remain unfinished, may be considered the principal causes which have led to the decay of Spanish commerce. But all those evils might be easily remedied, and

[k] Junio, Julio Agosto y puerte Mahon,
Los Mejores puertos del Mediterraneo son.

the country contains within itself the elements of prosperity. The time may come when government, aware of the true interests of Spain, will pursue an opposite course to that which has been hitherto followed. If industry were encouraged, if salutary reforms were introduced, if the real advantages of the country were no longer sacrificed to the imaginary advantages of American possessions, Spain might become the wealthiest and most flourishing region in Europe.

Republic of Andorra.

It may be necessary to mention a small territory near the confines of France and Spain, nominally neutral, and protected by two great states. Although the republic of Andorra is twice as large as that of San Marino in Italy, the former remains unnoticed, while the other is described in most geographical works.[1] It is bounded on the east, the south, and the west, by the corregidories of Puycerda and Talarn in Catalonia, and on the north by the department of the Arriege. The whole state may be about seven leagues in length by six in breadth; it contains thirty-four villages or hamlets, and six burghs, namely: Old Andorra, or the capital, Camillo, Encampo, Massana, Ordino, and Saint Julian. The thermal springs near the hamlet of Caldes are still frequented, and the iron in the territory furnishes employment to many of the inhabitants. The valley, watered by several streams, of which the three largest are the Balira, the Ordino, and the Os, is crowned by inaccessible mountains. Rich in the products of the three natural kingdoms, it contains quarries of fine marble, inexhaustible iron mines, and valuable timber, which is transported by the Balira and the Segra to Tortosa, and from thence to the Mediterranean. The forests and the mountains abound with game and different animals, such as wild goats and wild boars, bears and wolves. Part of the land produces excellent tobacco.

Origin.

Lewis the Debonnaire ceded the sovereignty of Andorra to the bishops of Urgel; the latter possessed it jointly with the counts of Foix from the thirteenth century until the accession of Henry the Fourth to the throne, when the county of Foix was united to France. Since that time the French kings retained feudal rights over it: but in the year 1790 feudal rights were abolished, and the small republic of Andorra was rendered independent of France.

Government.

The government is composed of two syndics, elected by a general council of twenty-four members, who are chosen by the six burghs. The people speak the Catalonian dialect; they are under the spiritual authority of the bishop of Urgel. Happy in their seclusion, the quarrels of ambitious men never disturb their peaceful labours.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

POLITICAL DIVISION OF SPAIN.

Lieutenancies.	Corregimentos.[m]	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.[n]
Pampeluna	—	Pampeluna	—
Vittoria	Guipuscoa	St. Sebastian	—
	Bilboa	—	—
Oviedo	Orense	Corunna	Corunna
	Betansos	Ferrol	Ferrol
	Banos de Molyas	—	—
	Baltar	—	—

[1] It holds a place, however, in the excellent table, entitled Balance politique du Globe by Ad. Balbi.

[m] Corregiemento, the district in which the jurisdiction of a corregidor extends.

[n] The district subject to a higher alcade.

Lieutenancies.	Corregiementos.	Governments.	Alcaldias Mayoras.
	Linares	—	—
	Verin	—	—
Santiago	Cambados	Salvatierra	Salvatierra
	Ulloa	—	—
	Rairiz da Vega	—	—
Soto Mayor	—	—	Soto Mayor
Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona
	Albarracin	Berga	Berga
	Cervera	Cervera	—
	Barbastro	—	—
	Benavarre	—	—
	Borja	—	—
	Gerone	Gerone	Gerone
	Calatayud	Calatayud	Calatayud
	Figueras	Figueras	Figueras
	Moya	—	—
	Lerida	Lerida	Lerida
	Manresa	Manresa	Manresa
	Mataro	Mataro	Mataro
	Puigcerda	Puigcerda	Puigcerda
	Talarn	Talarn	—
	Tortosa	Sco de Urgel	—
	Valle de Aren	Rosas	—
	Vich	—	—
	Villafranca de Penades	—	—
Zaragossa	Zaragossa	—	Zaragossa
	Cincavillas	Cincavillas	Cincavillas
	Daroca	Daroca	Daroca
	—	Alcaniz, O. M.*	—
	Fraga	—	—
	Huesca	Huesca	Huesca
	Jaca	Jaca	Jaca
	Tarazona	Monzon	—
	Torrijas	—	—
	Tarragona	Tarragona	Tarragona
	Teruel	Teruel	Teruel
Leon	Leon	—	Leon
	Astorga	—	—
	Ponferrada	—	—
	Benavides	—	—
	Bonar	—	—
	Sahagum	—	—
Palencia	Palencia	—	Placencia
	Carrion	—	Aguilar de Campo
	Reinosa	—	—
	Becerril de Campos	—	—
	Duenas	—	—
	Herrera de Rio Pisuerga	—	—
	Toro	—	—
	Torquemada	—	—
Zamora	—	Zamora	Zamora
	—	—	Alaejos
Salamanca	—	Salamanca	Salamanca
	—	—	Alba de Tormes

* O. M. or Military Order.

Lieutenancies.	Corregiemenos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
	Ledesma	Civdad Rodrigo	Civdad Rodrigo
	—	San Felices de los Gallegos	—
Valladolid	Valladolid	—	Valladolid
	Medina del Compo	—	—
	Olmedo	—	—
	Puebla de Sanabria	Puebla de Sanabria	—
	Tordesillas	—	—
Avila	Madrigal	—	—
	Arevalo	—	—
Burgos	Burgos	—	Burgos
	Briviesca	—	—
	Lerma	—	—
	San Domingo de la Colzada	—	—
	Castroxerix	—	—
	The Merindas of Old Castille[p]	—	—
Segovia	Segovia	—	Aguilar del Rio Alama
	Soria	—	—
	Agreda	—	—
	Alfaro	—	—
	Logrono	—	—
	Arnedo	—	—
	Calahora	—	—
	Riaza	—	—
Santander	—	Santander	Santander
	—	Santona	—
Badajoz	—	Badajoz	Badajoz
	Caceres	Olivenza	Albuquerque
	Coria	—	—
	Plasencia	Alcantara, O. M.	—
	Trujillo	Gata, O. M.	—
	Guadalcanal, O. M.	Jeres de los Cabelleros, O. M.	—
	—	Llerena, O. M.	—
	—	Merida, O. M.	—
	—	Valencia de Alcantara, O. M.	—
	—	Villa Nueva de la Serena, O. M.	—
Madrid	Madrid	—	—
	Alcala de Henares	—	—
	Chinchon	—	—
Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara	—	Guadalaxara
	Atienza	—	—
	Ita	—	—
	Jadraque	—	—
	Medina Celi	—	—
	Molina de Aragon	—	—
Toledo	Toledo	Ocana, O. M.	—
	Talavera de la Reina	—	—
	Illescas	—	—
	Lillo	—	—

[p] Six of the merindas are situated in the province or lieutenancy of Burgos; Campo, Horna, and Valdelugana form part of them.

Lieutenancies.	Corregimentos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
Cuenca	Cuenca	—	Alarcon
	Huete	—	—
	Requena	—	—
	San Clemente	—	—
	Sisanta y Vara del Rey	—	—
	Utiel	—	—
	Tarazona	—	—
Civdad Real	Civdad Real	Penas de San Pedro	—
	Alcaraz	Almaden, O. M.	—
	Villa Neuva de los Infantes	Almagro, O. M.	—
	—	Infantes, O. M.	—
Valencia	Valencia	—	Valencia
	Alcoy	—	—
	—	Alcira	Alcira
	—	Alicante	Alicante
	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana
	Denia	Denia	—
	Jejona	—	—
	Morella	Morella	Morella
	Onteniente	Murviedro	—
	Orihuela	Orihuela	Orihuela
	Peniscola	Peniscola	—
	San Felipe	San Felipe	San Felipe
Neuvas Poplaziones	—	—	Carolina
Jaen	Jaen	Martos, O. M.	—
	Andujar	—	—
	Ubeda	—	—
	Alcala la Real	—	Alcala la Real
	Alcaudete	—	—
	Marcha Real	—	—
Cordova	Cordova	—	Cordova
	Bujalance	—	Aguilar de la Frontera
	Lucena	—	—
	Montilla	—	—
	Montoro	—	—
	Pedroches	—	—
Seville	Seville	Ayamonte	San Lucar la Mayor
	Almonta	San Lucar de Guadiana	—
	Carmona	—	—
	Ecija	—	Ecija
	Gibraleon	—	—
	Moguer	—	—
	Niebla	—	—
	Paradas	—	—
	Pruna	—	—
	Rota y Chipiona	—	—
Cadiz	—	Cadiz	Cadiz
	Alcala de los Gazules	Puerto de Santa Maria	Puerto de Santa Maria

Provinces.	Corregimentos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
	Arcos de la Frontera	San Lucar de Barrameda	San Lucar de Barrameda
	Chielana	—	—
	Conil	—	—
	Xeres de la Frontera	—	Xeres de la Frontera
	Trebujena	Tarifa	Tarifa
	Villa Martin	—	—
Grenada	Grenada	Grenada	Grenada
	Ujijar in the Alpuxaras	—	—
	—	Almeira	Almeira
	—	—	Alboloduy
	—	Motril	Motril
	Antequera	—	Antequera
	Baza	—	Adra, Berja, and Dalias
	Coin	—	—
	Guadix	—	Calahora de Grenada
Malaga	—	Malaga	Malaga
	Gibraltar	—	—
	Marbella	—	—
	Ronda	—	Ronda
	Velez Malaga	—	—
Murcia	Murcia	—	Murcia
	Albacete	Cieza, O. M.	—
	Chincilla	—	—
	Mula	—	—
Carthagena	—	Carthagena	Carthagena
Mallorca	Mahon	Mahon	—
Palma	Palma	Palma	Palma
	—	Iviza	—

DIVISION OF SPAIN INTO LIEUTENANCIES.

WITH THE NUMBER OF PROVINCES, THEIR POPULATION, AND THAT OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS IN EACH PROVINCE, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST DOCUMENTS.

A. *Lieutenancy of Navarre.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Navarre	Navarre	272,000	Pampeluna	15,000
			Tudela	8,000
			Estella	6,000
			Tafalla	5,000

B. *Lieutenancy of Guipuscoa.*

The Vascongades	Guipuscoa	127,000	St. Sebastian	9,000
			Fontarabia	2,000
			Tolosa	5,000
			Vergara or Bergara	4,000
	Biscay	133,000	Bilbao	15,000
			Orduna	3,000
	Alava	85,000	Vittoria	7,000

C. *Lieutenancy of Gallicia.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Asturias	Asturias	420,000	Oviedo	10,000
			Aviles	6,000
			Gijon	6,000
Gallicia	Santiago	535,000	Santiago	28,000
			Pontevedra	4,000
			Padron	4,000
			Muros	4,000
	Betanzos	167,000	Betanzos	5,000
			Ferrol	13,000
	Corunna	73,000	Corunna	18,000
	Lugo	382,000	Lugo	7,000
	Orense	382,000	Orense	4,000
	Tuy	198,000	Tuy	6,000
			Ribadavia	2,000
	Mondonebo	122,000	Mondonedo	6,000
			Ribadeo	3,000

D. *Lieutenancy of Arragon.*

Arragon	Arragon	77,000	Saragossa	55,000
			Jaca	3,000
			Alcaniz	6,000
			Barbastro	7,000
			Borja	3,000
			Fraga	5,000
			Huesca	9,000
			Carinena	3,000
			Calatayud	6,000
			Daroca	6,000
			Montalban	3,000
			Teruel	7,000
			Taragona	10,000

E. *Lieutenancy of Catalonia.*

Catalonia	Catalonia	1,125,000	Barcelona	120,000
			Cervera	5,000
			Figueres	7,000
			Girone	6,000
			Lerida	12,000
			Manresa	13,000
			Mataro	13,000
			Tarragona	11,000
			Tortosa	16,000
			Villa Franca de Penades	4,000
			Vich	12,000

F. *Lieutenancy of Old Castile.*

Old Castile	Avila	107,000	Avila	4,000
			Arevalo	2,000
	Burgos	366,000	Burgos	12,000
			Aranda de Duero	4,000
	Segovia	140,000	Segovia	12,000
			St. Ildefonse	4,000

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Old Castile	Soria	262,000	Soria	5,000
			Calahora	6,000
			Agredo	3,000
	Santander	183,000	Santander	18,000
Leon	Leon	290,000	Leon	5,000
			Astorga	4,000
	Palencia	205,000	Palencia	10,000
			Carrion de los Condes	3,000
	Toro, Zamora	152,000	Toro	9,000
			Zamora	7,000
	Salamanca	235,000	Salamanca	14,000
			Civdad Rodrigo	4,000
	Valladolid	195,000	Valladolid	32,000
			Medina del Campo	3,000
			Medino de Rio Seco	4,000
			Tordesilas	3,000

G. *Lieutenancy of Estremadura.*

Estremadura	Estremadura	670,000	Badajoz	12,000
			Albuquerque	6,000
			Alcantara	3,000
			Caceres	10,000
			Ceclavin	5,000
			Llerena	6,000
			Merida	5,000
			Olivenza	10,000
			Plasencia	6,000
			Trusillo	4,000
			Xeres de los Cavalleros	9,000
			Zafra	10,000

H. *Lieutenancy of New Castile.*

New Castile	Madrid	348,000	Madrid	201,000
			Alcada de Henares	4,000
	Guadalaxara	217,000	Guadalaxara	7,000
			Brihuega	4,000
			Siguenza	5,000
	Toledo	347,000	Toledo	15,000
			Aranjuez	4,000
			Consuegra	6,000
			Guardia	4,000
			Ocana	5,000
	Cuenca	328,000	Cuenca	7,000
			Requena	10,000
	Mancha	375,000	Civdad Real	10,000
			Alcaraz	10,000
			Manzanares	9,000

I. *Lieutenancy of Valencia and Murcia.*

Valencia		1,048,000	Valencia	66,000
			Alcala de Chisvert	6,000
			Alcira	8,000
			Alcoy	18,000
			Alicante	23,000

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Valencia		1,048,000	Benicarlo	5,000
			Castellon de la Plana	15,000
			Carcagente	5,000
			Concentayna	7,000
			Callera	7,000
			Denia	3,000
			Elda	4,000
			Elcha	4,000
			Gandia	6,000
			Murviedro	6,000
			Orihuela	25,000
			Oliva	5,000
			Segorbe	6,000
			San Felipe	15,000
			Venaros	9,000
			Villa Real	8,000
			Xixoma	4,000
Murcia		458,000	Murcia	35,000
			Albacete	9,000
			Almansa	7,000
			Callaspara	3,000
			Carthagena	29,000
			Cehegin	10,000
			Chinchilla	10,000
			Jumilla	8,000
			Lorea	40,000
			Totana	8,000
			Villena	12,000
			Yecla	8,000

J. *Lieutenancy of Andalusia.*

Andalusia	New Population	13,000	Carolina	3,000
	Jaen	267,000	Jaen	18,000
			Andujar	10,000
			Alcala Real	14,000
			Alcandete	6,000
			Baeza	10,000
			Baylen	4,000
			Martos	10,000
			Ubeda	15,000
	Cordova	370,000	Cordova	46,000
			Baena	14,000
			Bujalance	14,000
			Lucena	19,000
			Montilla	13,000
			Priego	16,000
	Seville	648,000	Seville	91,000
			Aracena	5,000
			Ayamonte	6,000
			Carmona	18,000
			Constantina	6,000
			Ecija	34,000
			Estepa	10,000
			Fregenal	5,000
			Huelva	8,000

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Andalusia	Seville	648,000	Marchena	13,000
			Osuna	16,000
			Utrera	11,000
	Cadiz	245,000	Cadiz	53,000
			Algesiras	13,000
			Arcos de la Frontera	10,000
			Medina Sidonia	9,000
			Porta San Maria	17,000
			Rota	8,000
			San Fernando, (Island of Leon)	3,000
			San Lucar de Barrameda	16,000
			Tarifa	13,000
			Xeres de la Frontera	31,000

K. *Lieutenancy of Grenada and Malaga.*

Andalusia	Grenada	1,108,000	Grenada	80,000
			Adra	9,000
			Alhama	6,000
			Almunecar	5,000
			Almeira	19,000
			Baza	10,000
			Guadix	9,000
			Loja	14,000
			Motril	10,000
			Torviscon	15,000
	Malaga		Malaga	52,000
			Antequera	20,000
			Estepona	9,000
			Marbella	4,000
			Ronda	18,000
			Velez Malaga	14,000

L. *Lieutenancy of Majorca.*

Balearic Islands.	Balearic Islands.	250,000	Majorca	Palma	34,000
				Manacar	9,000
				Pollenza	7,000
				Soller	8,000
			Minorca	Mahon	19,000
				Alayor	5,000
				Civdadela	7,000
				Mercadal	4,000
			Ivica	Ivica	5,000

Total population 13,560,000

Table of the Spanish Colonies.

Africa	Presidias, or places on the coast	11,000		Ceuta	9,000
				Alhucemas, Melcila	2,000
	Canary Islands	196,000	Teneriffe	Santa Cruz	8,000
				San Cristoval	9,000
			Great Canary	Palmas	9,000
				Aguimez	5,000
				Arucas	4,000

Africa	Canary Islands	196,000	Great Canary	Guia	3,000
	Island of Annobon	1,000		Tirajana	3,000
	Island of Fernando-Po		Palma	Santa Cruz	5,000
			Lancerote	Teguise	2,000
Oceanica	Philipine Islands	2,640,000	Luconia	Manille	140,000
	Marian Islands			Carite	6,000
				Tayabes	13,000
America	Antilles	1,240,000	Cuba	Havanna	130,000
				Bayamo	12,000
				Matanzas	7,000
				Puerto Principe	—
				Santiago	30,000
			Puerto Rico	San Juan	20,000
					30,000

Total population of the colonies	4,088,000
Total population of Spain	13,560,000[q]
Total population of the Spanish monarchy	17,648,000

Number of Hospitals and other Institutions.

Hospitals	2,231
Houses of entertainment for monks and ecclesiastics	106
Foundling hospitals	67
Places of retreat	32
Prisons	5,898
Colleges and boarding houses	383
Houses of education	168

Number of Clergy in 1826.

Archbishops and bishops	61
Canons	2,363
Prebends	1,869
Curates	16,481
Vicars	4,929
Incumbents having great benefices	17,411
Do. small benefices	9,088
Expectants (*demandantes*)	3,467
Hermits and pilgrims	1,300
Number of men in the convents	61,327
Do. women do.	31,400
Total number	146,696

Cattle, &c. in the kingdom of Leon and Castile, according to the documents published by M. Minano in 1826.

	Belonging to Laymen.	Ecclesiastics.	Total number.
Horned cattle	2,729,551	215,334	2,944,885
Horses	361,523	38,972	400,495

[q] The number of people in the hospitals, prisons, colleges, and ecclesiastical seminaries, has not been determined. The same remark is applicable to the number of criminals, smugglers, gipsies, and persons without any means of subsistence. Their number has been vaguely estimated by M. Minano at 127,345

The ecclesiastics amount to	149,696
The army	64,000
Inhabitants of Spain	13,560,000.
Thus the total population is equal to	13,901,041

	Belonging to Laymen.	Ecclesiastics.	Total number.
Mules	206,967	16,679	223,646
Sheep	16,792,788	1,894,371	18,687,159
Goats	4,828,068	359,600	5,187,668
Asses	618,342	23,446	641,788
Pigs	2,551,152	177,131	2,728,283
Hives	1,467,773	229,820	1,697,593

Spanish Revenue.

Customs	*l.*939,170
Tobacco	625,000
Salt	410,917
Stamps	137,900
Lottery	90,000
Tax on the population of Grenada	8,750
Lanzas (contributions exacted from the grandees as an equivalent for the lances or horsemen which they furnished formerly to the crown)	119,170
Cruzada (ancient tax levied for the crusades)	197,087
Escusado (subsidy granted by the pope from the revenue of the clergy)	215,000
Novemo (ninth part of the tithes granted by the pope)	242,917
Tertias (two ninths of the tithes)	125,000
Diezmo (tax on the river fishings in Seville)	417
Half of the annats belonging to the secular clergy	9,325
Casa Aposento (ancient tax claimed by the king's purveyors)	7,292
Penas de Camera (fines incurred after three appeals to the supreme council)	12,500
Mesadas (ecclesiastical dues and annats)	15,422
Posts, gunpowder, saltpetre, and other products	1,320,000
Total	*l.*4,376,776
Amount of the national debt	*l.*150,000,000

Army. Effective men.	*Navy.* Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Other vessels.	Men in the Naval Service.
50,000[r]	10	16	30	14,000

[r] If the invalids, pensioners, and men on the sick list be included, the whole number may amount to 120,000. The militia consists of 40,000.

END OF VOL. V.

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